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A SUMMARY OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY, FROM *THE CREATION* TO THE PRESENT TIME.

IN LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO HIS SON.

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FIFTH ÆRA

OF

Universal History,

Commencing with the Year 331, *and ending in the Year* 141, *when Carthage and Greece were entirely reduced by the Romans.*

FIRST LETTER.

ON the death of Alexander the Great, in the year 322, Judea and Samaria fell to Laomedon, one of his Captains. But Pto-

lemy Lagus, in a war that followed, beſieged and took Jeruſalem. The Jews made a moſt obſtinate defence, having ſworn allegiance to Laomedon. Ptolemy therefore treated them with great ſeverity, till he coolly conſidered the principles on which they had acted. And then, inſtead of puniſhing them, he reſtored the privileges granted by Alexander; beſides raiſing many of the principal Jews to places of truſt in his kingdom of Egypt.

The Samaritans had ſubmitted to Ptolemy without oppoſition. Indeed through the whole courſe of their hiſtory, ſelf-intereſt ſeems uniformly to have operated, without any regard to their engagements. The idolatry of the firſt Samaritans had, however, by this time, gone into diſuſe. And as they received and protected every Jew who fled to them for refuge, they really became, in part, the deſcendants of Jacob. It would be of little uſe to go into a minute enquiry, as to the difference between the worſhip of the latter Samaritans and the Jews. I ſhall con-

tent myſelf with obſerving, that the Samaritans admitted of no books but thoſe of Moſes, viz. Geneſis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers, and Deuteronomy. Theſe were called the Pentateuch, and with the law therein contained, they blended ſome of their former ideas. The Jews made this Pentateuch the groundwork of their faith alſo. But they likewiſe added all thoſe other writings which you find in our Engliſh verſion of the Bible, and which are, without all doubt, the works of inſpired penmen.

Notwithſtanding the favorable treatment of Ptolemy, the Jews ſuffered great hardſhips by their country becoming the ſeat of war. For after the conteſt with Laomedon was over, Antigonus, of Upper Aſia, diſputed thoſe countries with Ptolemy; till at length, about the year 300, both Judea and Samaria were formally ceded to the kingdom of Egypt.

It was not long ſubſequent to this, that a

very material alteration was made in the Jewiſh conſtitution. The High-Prieſt was hitherto at the head of both civil and religious affairs. But on the death of Simon Juſtus, in the year 292, his brother, Eleazor, only ſucceeded to the Prieſthood; for Antigonus, another Jew, was elected to preſide in the Sanhedrim, or Grand Council, though that office was before united with the other duties of the High Prieſt. The Sanhedrim conſiſted of ſeventy-two members, and always aſſembled at Jeruſalem. There were other ſubordinate courts throughout Judea, and the members of theſe different aſſemblies were called Doctors, Scribes, Lawyers, and Rulers, according to their different ranks and authorities.

This ſeparation, between the civil and religious power, gave riſe to very important conſequences. The Sanhedrim now began to diſpute about the expoſition of the Moſaic law, and a fatal ſchiſm aroſe amongſt the Jews. One ſect, called Saducees, from Za-

dock, their founder, maintained, that there was no reſurrection. Thoſe who were of a contrary opinion, were termed Phariſees. And though they at firſt confined themſelves to diſputation only, we ſhall ſee it conclude in the moſt bloody animoſity.

In the year 281, Ptolemy Philadelphus ſucceeded Lagus in the throne of Egypt. He alſo was a warm friend to the Jews: and as he fought moſt diligently to encreaſe his famous library at Alexandria, he deſired a tranſlation of the Bible into the Greek language, which was accordingly executed by ſeventy-two of the moſt learned perſons in the Jewiſh nation. And thus, between two and three hundred years prior to the birth of Chriſt, the contents of the Old Teſtament were laid open to the heathen world.

Ptolemy Euergetes, who began to reign over Egypt about the year 243, likewiſe continued the Jewiſh privileges. After ſome of his victories, he perſonally viſited Jeruſalem,

where the High Prieſt pointed them out as foretold by Daniel; and in imitation of Alexander, he thereupon ſacrificed to the God of Iſrael. You have, no doubt, a curioſity to enquire as to the fulfilling of theſe prophecies, but for the preſent I wiſh you to reſtrain it, as I ſhall find a properer place to treat on that important ſubject.

About the year 218, Euergetes was ſucceeded by Ptolemy Philopater. He alſo paid a viſit to Jeruſalem, and ſacrificed in its temple. But not contented with ſeeing what was uſual in that edifice, he inſiſted on viewing its inmoſt receſſes. This being contrary to the Jewiſh regulations, the High Prieſt refuſed his conſent. Philopater, however, gratified his curioſity by force. And a ſudden diſeaſe, at the ſame inſtant, is ſaid to have ſeized him, under which he was reconveyed to Alexandria.

He imputed this diſorder to the malice of the Jews, on whom he reſolved to be revenged. Numbers of that people having

ſettled in Egypt, he began with taking away their privileges. They were likewiſe ordered to worſhip the Egyptian deities; and a few only complying, the reſt were confined in the Hippodrome. This was a large encloſure, in which the Alexandrian ſports were performed, and a moſt ſavage entertainment was now deviſed for the inhabitants of Alexandria. A number of wild beaſts were let looſe amongſt the Jews by order of Philopater; but to the aſtoniſhment of all, thoſe animals did not even moleſt their deſtined victims. On the contrary, they burſt over the barriers that encloſed them, deſtroying numbers of the guards and ſpectators. And Philopater, being now convinced of a miraculous interference, not only releaſed the confined Jews, but he likewiſe allowed them to put to death thoſe of their brethren who had worſhipped the idols of Egypt.

In the year 201, the crown of Egypt devolved to Ptolemy Epiphanes, from whom

Judea revolted; at the ſame time putting themſelves under the protection of Antiochus the Great, King of Syria. They likewiſe continued tributary to Seleucus, his ſucceſſor, whoſe reign laſted till the year 176. And being treated by both theſe monarchs with the greateſt kindneſs, they became not only rich and powerful, but were alſo reſpected by all their neighbours.

This pleaſing aſpect of affairs, underwent almoſt an inſtantaneous change, on the acceſſion of Antiochus Epiphanes to the throne of Syria. He was in all his acts a bloody tyrant; and the ſingularity of the Jewiſh worſhip was to him peculiarly obnoxious. The High-Prieſthood was ſold by him over and over; whilſt at the ſame time the nation was plundered, and idolatry attempted to be eſtabliſhed. A report of Antiochus's death having reached Jeruſalem, whilſt ſmarting under theſe oppreſſions, they, without waiting for the certainty of ſo deſirable an event, fooliſhly indulged themſelves in the moſt ex-

travagant joy. And Antiochus, who was in perfect health, no ſooner heard of it, than he ſet out for Jeruſalem with a formidable army. After a ſhort ſiege he made himſelf maſter of the place, maſſacring 40,000 of its inhabitants. Multitudes were then ſold into ſlavery. The city and temple were plundered of all their riches. And having left an army to keep Judea in ſubjection, Antiochus returned in triumph to Antioch.

His reſentment was however far from being ſatisfied. A new army was raiſed, and diſpatched into Judea, under the command of his general Apollonius. It was well known that the Jews would not fight on their Sabbath. And Apollonius, according to his orders, falling on them on that day, thouſands of them periſhed, without even making a reſiſtance. Jeruſalem and the temple were then deſtroyed by fire: And as the bare walls of their place of worſhip were ſtill viſited by many, a fortreſs was erected that

commanded them; from whence the ſoldiers maſſacred all who perſiſted in approaching their deſolated temple.

Orders were now iſſued, that the Jewiſh worſhip ſhould neither be performed in Judea or Samaria, under the penalty of death. As for the Samaritans, they haſted to make their peace, erecting a ſtatue of Jupiter of their own accord, in the temple on Mount Gerizin. Antiochus, encouraged by this compliance, was more confirmed in his reſolution to extirpate the Moſaic law. He therefore cauſed another ſtatue of Jupiter to be erected within the deſolated walls of the Jewiſh temple. Other idols were raiſed in different places: And death and torture, with every means that cruelty could ſuggeſt, were uſed to enforce idolatry throughout Judea.

There were, however, a number of righteous Jews, who preferred every ſuffering to the denial of their God; many of whom concealed themſelves in caverns and deſerts,

till a favourable opportunity ſhould call them into action. Antiochus was ſo provoked at the reſiſtance he met with, that he came again to Jeruſalem, to give vigour to his orders. Every real Jew that fell into his hands, ſuffered the moſt excruciating tortures; thoſe who apoſtatized alone eſcaping. But all his machinations were in vain; and the remnant of the houſe of Jacob was ſoon to be reſcued out of the hands of this oppreſſor.

Mattathias, a Jewiſh Prieſt, together with his five ſons, continued openly to preach the true God, in a remote place of Judea. When this came to the ears of Antiochus, he diſpatched Apelles, one of his generals, to try if Mattathias and his ſons might not be bribed to apoſtatize. This being found impracticable, Apelles had an idol ſet up, and rewards were offered to ſuch as would fall down and worſhip it. There was a Jew preſent who complied; but Mattathias, regardleſs of conſequences, obeyed the Moſaic law, by inſtantly ſlaying the idolater: And the

reſt of his people, animated by ſuch an example, immediately deſtroyed Apelles, with the few who had accompanied him.

No alternative was now left for Mattathias. He therefore put himſelf at the head of his neighbours, with whom he retired into wild and ſtrong places, till his forces were conſiderably encreaſed. Having diſciplined his little army, and convinced them, that the Moſaic law did not forbid ſelf-defence, even on the Sabbath, he ſallied forth from his lurking place. It was ſo totally unexpected, that ſucceſs every where attended him. For Antiochus had ſo little ſuſpected ſuch an attempt, that he was gone on a very diſtant expedition.

The career of Mattathias was in a very ſhort time ended by death. He was ſucceeded in the command of the army, which now amounted to 6000 men, by his ſon Judas Macabæus. To oppoſe his progreſs, Apollonius was diſpatched with a very large army into Judea. But his troops were defeated,

and himſelf ſlain. Seron, with a freſh body of Syrian forces, ſhared the ſame fate. Nicanor and Georgias then advanced at the head of 47,000 men; when the victorious Judas ſoon convinced them, that numbers cannot inſure victory. And he not only overthrew them, but made himſelf maſter of their camp, with all its riches.

Licias, the governor of Antioch, now thought fit to take the field in perſon. Judas was by this time the leader of 10,000 men; and though he had ſix times that number againſt him, Licias was alſo defeated, and obliged to ſave himſelf by flight. A little reſpite was then given to Macabæus, during which he began the rebuilding of Jeruſalem. He alſo reſtored the religion and laws of his country. And the fortreſs which commanded the temple, being too ſtrong to be ſuddenly reduced, he ſurrounded it with a high wall, ſo as to prevent their excurſions. As for the temple itſelf, he repaired it as well as he could; furniſhing it with

new ornaments and veſſels, out of thoſe ſpoils which he had taken from the enemy.

Whilſt Judas was thus employed, Antiochus breathed nothing but the utter annihilation of Macabæus and his nation; for which purpoſe he was on his return to Antioch, when death removed this dreadful enemy. It did not give peace however to Judea. For Licias, the guardian of Antiochus Eupator, the ſon and ſucceſſor of the late king, was almoſt as violent againſt Macabæus. Two powerful armies, in ſucceſſion, were ſent againſt the Jews. And being defeated as uſual, Licias again attempted it in perſon, with 80,000 men. But he alſo had ſo little ſucceſs, that he thought proper to conclude a peace with the victorious Judas.

This was not agreeable to his maſter Eupator, who having attained to manhood, immediately renewed hoſtilities, and inveſted Jeruſalem with 100,000 men. Judas was forced to ſubmit; but he gained terms far from unfavourable to his native country.

Demetrius Soter almoſt immediately after this poſſeſſed himſelf of the Syrian crown. Judas then aſſerted his independency, and ſeveral unſucceſsful attempts were made to reduce him. At length he was ſurpriſed by 22,000 Syrians, when he had only 800 men along with him. Notwithſtanding this amazing diſparity, Judas fought till he himſelf, with moſt of his followers, periſhed. And the Syrians obtained the victory at the expence of a far greater number than they had ſubdued.

Thus fell the gallant Judas, after ſurviving his father about ſix years. He firſt drew his ſword in defence of his religion; and he reſcued his country from the moſt deplorable ſervitude. As his undaunted courage qualified him for the boldeſt ſcenes of war; ſo did his wiſdom and piety diſtinguiſh him during the ſhort reſpite of peace that was allowed him. And his memory became juſtly dear to all his countrymen.

His brother and ſucceſſor, Jonathan, was alſo a Prince of great merit, and very ſoon retrieved the Jewiſh affairs. In this he was greatly aided by a politic act of Judas, who, before his death, ſent to court the alliance of Rome. This being obtained, Demetrius Soter was now ordered to moleſt the Jews no longer. And not chooſing to diſobey that haughty and powerful republic, Judea roſe higher than it had done from the time of the Babyloniſh captivity.

For ſome years after this, the crown of Syria being conſtantly diſputed, Jonathan was courted by each party. And ſuch was his conſequence, that which ever ſide he joined was ſure to be victorious. But about the year 146, Nicator became King of Syria, and having firſt uſed Jonathan's power for his own eſtabliſhment, he very ungratefully inſiſted, that Judea ſhould again become a tributary nation.

Thus provoked, Jonathan eſpouſed the cauſe of Antiochus Theos, who, though a

child, was ſet up by Tryphon, a Syrian general, in competition for that crown. Theos was ſucceſsful, and in return many favours were heaped on Jonathan, and his brother Simon, beſides acknowledging the independence of Judea. The alliance with Rome was likewiſe renewed; and at the cloſe of this Æra, the Jews were as proſperous as at any time ſubſequent to their reſtoration by order of Cyrus.

SECOND LETTER.

IT was no ſooner known that Darius was dead, than ſeveral remote provinces ſurrendered to Alexander. After which he continued for ſome time in the chief city of Bactria, where he celebrated ſolemn games, and ſacrificed to the Grecian deities for fifteen days together.

He now proceeded againſt ſuch nations as had not yet ſubmitted in this quarter, and various engagements happened, in which, as uſual, he proved ſucceſsful. But his army, at this time, became extremely mutinous; being anxious to enjoy the immenſe ſpoil of which they were already maſters, rather than be led to new conqueſts. Obſerving this diſpoſition, Alexander took occaſion to harangue them. He firſt pointed out his reaſons for purſuing their good fortune; at the ſame time offering to diſcharge all ſuch as

ſhould require it: In conſequence of which, the whole body declared, they would follow wherever he thought proper to conduct them.

Alexander now ordered 30,000 youth from the provinces he had ſubjected to be trained to the Macedonian uſe of arms. He likewiſe ſtudied to blend the Europeans and Aſiatics together, ſo as to make both look up to him as their common ſovereign; for which purpoſe he gave his chief appointments indiſcriminately. By this conduct he, however, highly offended the Greeks and Macedonians; and a conſpiracy was the conſequence, which threatened the life of this Conqueror.

Cebalinus, a ſoldier in his army, was the perſon who firſt diſcovered this intention. He informed the King, that Dymnus, another ſoldier, had tampered with him, to aid in his aſſaſſination; which was confirmed by Dymnus ſtabbing himſelf the moment he was ſeized. This prevented poſitive proof of thoſe who employed him, though, from ſome circumſtances, Philotas, one of Alex-

ander's chief Captains, was ſuſpected. He was therefore put to the rack, on which he not only confeſſed his own guilt, but likewiſe accuſed his father Parmenio, together with ſeveral others. The conſequence was, that they all ſuffered death; though the reality of their guilt is doubted by many hiſtorians.

Beſſus had fought ſeveral battles with various ſucceſs, and had given very conſiderable trouble to Alexander. He was however at length delivered up by thoſe he confided in, ſoon after which he was put to a well merited death; whilſt, on the other hand, all who had been faithful to Darius, were peculiarly favoured by Alexander. After Beſſus was cut off, the Scythians alone gave much trouble to the Conqueror, and in one engagement he was wounded in the leg. But at length he came to terms of peace with that wandering people, and took up his winter quarters at Zaniaſta, a city of Bactria.

In this place he celebrated a great feſtival to Caſtor and Pollux. During it, his ſyco-

phants and courtiers praiſed his actions as thoſe of a deity, at the ſame time greatly underrating the conduct of his father Philip. Clytus, who had likewiſe ſerved Philip, being preſent, could not refrain from giving due credit to his old maſter. But Alexander, who had drank too freely, took offence at this, and ſpoke with great ſeverity. On which Clytus, who was intoxicated alſo, bade him recollect the battle of Granicus, at which he owed his life to his hand, though his flatterers would now elevate him to the honours of a god. Stung to the quick, at ſuch a recapitulation, Alexander, in his rage, ſeized a Macedonian pike, with which he put Clytus to inſtant death. But when the fumes of the wine had evaporated, he felt the moſt poignant ſorrow. He even attempted to lay violent hands upon himſelf. His ſycophants, however, ſoon reconciled him to the fate of Clytus. And renewed in him the deſire of being reckoned a god, though

he had ſo lately debaſed the character of a man.

It was not long till Anaxarchus, a perſon who diſgraced the name of philoſopher, and Agis, a wretched poet, actually prevailed on Alexander to aſſume the title, and claim the worſhip due to a deity. For, at a great feaſt which was prepared, theſe men firſt extolled him above Hercules, Bacchus, and other deified mortals; and then propoſed that divine honours ſhould be inſtantly paid the Macedonian Hero. The Perſians, who were uſed to proſtrate themſelves to their kings, found no difficulty in complying. But moſt of the Greeks who were preſent, obeyed much againſt their inclinations; and Caliſthenes moſt particularly offended him, by omitting to fall down, which was a part of the ceremony.

A freſh conſpiracy was a little after this diſcovered, againſt the life of Alexander. Fifty youth of the nobleſt blood of Macedon, were the immediate attendants on the Mo-

narch. One of theſe, named Hermolaus, having highly diſpleaſed the King during a hunting party, by killing a wild boar juſt as Alexander was about to ſtrike him; he was immediately ſtripped, and whipped before his companions. The effect of this diſgrace was ſuch, that he reſolved to deſtroy Alexander; and five more of the fifty youth were brought into his plan. One however made a diſcovery, and the reſt were ſeized, and brought before the aſſembled forces. Inſtead of a denial, Hermolaus openly boaſted of his intentions. He recapitulated the worſt actions of the King, regretting he had not been able to rid the world of ſuch a tyrant: after which he and his aſſociates were ſtoned to death. Caliſthenes had been very intimate with Hermolaus; and when this was added to his former offence, of not adoring the King, it proved ſufficient to incur the ſevereſt puniſhment; for he was carried about in an iron cage till he expired, either from hard uſage, or by the order of his maſter.

Having ſpent the winter in wickedneſs and folly, he began the next campaign by going againſt ſome provinces which had revolted. Amongſt other ſucceſſes, a ſtrong fortreſs fell into his hands, belonging to Oxyartes, a principal Bactrian. In it he found the wife and daughter of Oxyartes, the latter of whom was very beautiful. Her name was Roxana, and Alexander becoming enamoured of her charms, generouſly made her his queen, inſtead of uſing the power of a conqueror. On which her father ſubmitted, and was treated with a kindneſs due to ſo near a connexion.

Having fully eſtabliſhed his power in theſe parts, he turned his arms towards thoſe countries watered by the river Cophenes. Here he was met by Taxiles, a powerful prince, and alſo by moſt of the kings whoſe countries lay between the Cophenes and the river Indus. They came to make their ſubmiſſion, bringing with them a number of elephants, beſides vaſt quantities of gold and ſilver. The firſt alone was, however, ac-

cepted by Alexander, and even for them he obliged the ſubmiſſive kings to take a recompenſe.

His next courſe was to the river Choaſpes, in which he met with ſeveral warlike people, and was wounded in taking one of their cities. But Meſſada, the capital of the Aſſaceni, gave him the greateſt oppoſition. A widowed queen was at this time their ruler, and ſhe had ſtrengthened her own garriſon by the addition of 7000 mercenary Indians. Alexander in vain attempted its reduction, and was himſelf wounded on the occaſion; till at length the mercenary troops made ſecret terms with Alexander, marching out of Meſſada, and encamping in its neighbourhood. There they were treacherouſly cut to pieces by the Greeks. In defence of this, the Macedonian monarch alledged, he had only promiſed, that they ſhould paſs in ſafety from the town. But ſurely, ſo vile an

equivocation, if poſſible, added to the baſeneſs of this action.

The city now ſurrendered, and the queen, with her chief women, met the conquerors, preſenting them with goblets of wine. Her charms had alſo a great effect on the King, who after reſiding with her for ſome time, reſtored her to her former rights; and it is ſaid a ſon was the conſequence of their connexion.

Having ſubdued ſeveral other petty ſtates, he paſſed the Indus, where he was joined by Taxiles, with a large body of Indians. Thus reinforced, he marched to the banks of the Hydaſpes, and found on the oppoſite ſide a powerful enemy, that was determined to oppoſe him. This was Porus, one of the greateſt of the Indian princes. He made a gallant oppoſition: till after loſing three ſons, and moſt of his troops, he was forced to ſurrender. When Porus was brought before Alexander, his appearance ſtruck the Conqueror in the moſt forcible manner. His

perſon was ſeven feet in height, at the ſame time finely proportioned; and his aſpect was bold and undiſmayed. On being aſked what terms would gratify him, he, in a few words, deſired to be treated like a king. And Alexander reſtoring his crown to him, found Porus ever afterwards faithful to his intereſts.

On the river Hydaſpes Alexander founded two cities, one of which he called Bucephalus, in honour of a famous horſe of that name, which had carried him in moſt of his battles. He then paſſed the river Aceſines, and having conquered ſeveral powerful people in that quarter, he propoſed to lead his forces over the Hyphaſis; beyond which, he was informed, there were many nations remarkable for their wealth, laws, and courage. His troops were at this time greatly diſcontented, at the perpetual hardſhips and dangers they encountered. Alexander therefore again harangued them, when

he found not only his private ſoldiers, but alſo ſome of his chief men, greatly averſe to further expeditions. This was highly diſpleaſing to him, and for a few days he was extremely ſullen; till at length, a ſoothſayer, having declared ſome ſacrifices that were made inauſpicious, he aſſembled the troops together, telling them, that ſince it was neither pleaſing to them, nor to the gods, he would no longer oppoſe their return; on which the army expreſſed the higheſt gratitude and ſatisfaction.

Before Alexander quit his camp, in this remote country, he ordered a quantity of things to be made, much larger than ordinary, which were left behind them. He alſo raiſed huge altars, and dug very deep trenches, that men in after ages might deem him and his followers of more than common ſtature. Having executed this fooliſh vanity, he returned to his new cities on the river Hydaſpes; where he built a number of veſſels, to take his army and baggage to the

mouth of the Indus. From whence he reſolved to ſend the old and infirm, together with what was cumberſome, by ſea, to the coaſt which was neareſt to the province of Babylon.

Having embarked all he thought neceſſary, he proceeded down the river Hydaſpes; Craterus, with a body of horſe and foot, marching along its banks, on the right ſide, and Hepheſtion, with a ſtill greater force, accompanying the ſhipping on the left. When they reached that part of the river, where the Aceſſines and Hydraortes pour into it, the current and eddies were ſo violent, that the veſſels received great damage; Alexander himſelf very narrowly eſcaping being drowned. Having paſſed his troops that marched by land over the intervening rivers, he fought ſeveral battles with the Oxydracæ and Malli, two very warlike nations in theſe parts; and on one occaſion, Alexander's life was very near being ended. Having taken a

city, ſome of its garriſon retreated to the citadel. The Macedonian King, being fluſhed with victory, was then the firſt to aſcend a ſcaling ladder that was applied to its walls. He was immediately followed by Peuceſtas, Leonatus, and Abreas. But the ſcaling ladder being broke, or giving way, theſe four, for a ſhort time, had to withſtand the united force of all within. Abreas was killed, and Alexander ſtruck down with a wound in the breaſt, before any aid could be had. Peuceſtas and Leonatus, though hurt themſelves, however covered Alexander with their ſhields, till freſh ſuccours arrived; and then the fortreſs was taken, and its defenders put to the ſword. The recovery of the King was for ſome days doubtful; during which his forces were in a ſtate of deſpair. But on his getting better, their courage revived, and they continued their courſe towards the ocean; the Malli and Oxydracæ having firſt acknowledged the Macedonian juriſdiction.

On reaching the Indus, into which the

Hydaſpes falls, all the troops not embarked marched on the left ſide of the river. In their progreſs, ſeveral princes ſubmitted, and at length both the fleet and army arrived at the iſland of Pattola, in the mouth of the Indus. From thence Alexander, with a few of his people, ſailed a little way into the Eaſtern Ocean; where the tide was a matter of great aſtoniſhment, as the Mediterranean neither ebbs nor flows. And having ſacrificed to Neptune, the Macedonian King returned to Pattola.

Nearchus was diſpatched from thence with the fleet, for the mouth of the Tigris; whilſt Alexander, with only the flower of his army, took the neareſt route by land. The fatigue and diſtreſſes they underwent is inconceivable; a great part of the country through which they paſſed being a deſert, and totally uninhabited. Almoſt all their elephants and horſes periſhed. And the troops would have ſunk under their hard-

ſhips and wants, but for the animated example of their monarch. He ſhared in every calamity equal with the meaneſt ſoldier; refuſing every kind of preference in the articles of food and liquor. When parching with thirſt, where ſcarcely any water could be had, a little was brought in a helmet by one of his ſoldiers; but inſtead of taſting it, he poured it on the ground, as the reſt could have no ſuch refreſhment. By ſuch exertions, he at length reached the fruitful province of Caramania, where the remnant of his forces were ſoon recruited; he, however, loſt a very great part of his army in this arduous undertaking.

Having ſufficiently refreſhed his ſoldiers, and puniſhed ſuch of his deputies as had abuſed their power in this quarter, he continued his route to the capital of Perſia. Paſſing by the ruins of Perſepolis, he, in ſome degree, atoned for its deſtruction, by ſhedding tears at the remembrance. Having arrived at Suſa, he ſtudiouſly removed all

grievances that had ariſen in his abſence. And he had now the ſatisfaction to find that Nearchus had ſafely arrived in the Tigris.

Calanus, an Indian Philoſopher or Brachman, had accompanied Alexander, in hopes of adding to his knowledge; but being taken ill about this time, and conceiving he could not recover, he gave a ſtrong inſtance of heroiſm; for cauſing a funeral pile to be erected, Calanus very deliberately laid himſelf upon it, where he was, at his own deſire, conſumed to aſhes. And it is probable, this was a general practice amongſt the teachers of theſe Indians.

Alexander now devoted his whole attention to the intermarriages of the Greeks and Perſians, and alſo to every other means of blending them together. He himſelf took Statira, the daughter of Darius, to wife, as alſo Barſine and Paryſatis, two other women of rank; and his chief officers followed the example. To gratify his own army, he or-

dered all their debts to be paid. His principal Captains were honoured with crowns of gold, beſides the moſt ſubſtantial marks of his favour. And, in recompenſe for their paſt toils and dangers, he enabled them to partake of the moſt unbonnded and voluptuous enjoyments.

The thirty thouſand youths from the Aſiatic provinces, were now reviewed by Alexander, who highly approved of their diſcipline. This was very offenſive to the Greeks and Macedonians, who were likewiſe diſpleaſed at the equal diſtribution of offices between them and the Perſians. And an occaſion alone was wanting to diſcloſe their jealouſy and diſcontent.

Weary of exceſs of pleaſure, Alexander at length prepared for new expeditions. A great fleet was therefore aſſembled, and a vaſt army encamped at the mouth of the Tigris. When every thing was nearly ready, the forces were all drawn out; and Alexander determining to have no reluctant ſoldiers

along with him, told them, that all who chose it might have their discharge; at the same time assuring them, that such as adhered to him should be most amply rewarded. But what was his surprise, when the Macedonians to a man demanded their dismission. They, at the same time, exclaimed against the favours he had shewn to the barbarians, bidding him take his 30,000 dancing boys to conquer those nations he intended to invade. Nay, they insultingly added, that he and his father, Jupiter Ammon, might themselves conquer the world. This was too much for the temper of Alexander. Bursting with fury, he leaped from his throne, ordering his guards to follow him. The astonished soldiers were so used to obey, that they gave him no opposition. Thirteen of the ringleaders were seized, and put to instant death. After which the King upbraided the rest with their absurdity and ingratitude, and retired to his palace.

Having taken two days for consideration,

during which he did not make his appearance, Alexander ſent for the principal Perſians. Each of theſe he honoured with a kiſs, appointing them his chief officers, and declaring, that henceforth his army ſhould be Perſian. When the Macedonians heard of this determination, ſorrow took place of their reſentment. They threw down their arms, and ſurrounding the palace, acknowledged their fault in the moſt moving terms, at the ſame time imploring the forgiveneſs of their Sovereign. When Alexander came forward, and beheld his gallant countrymen thus affected at his diſpleaſure, he burſt into tears. A deep ſilence followed, which was firſt broke by Collines, a veteran ſoldier. He, in the name of the reſt, expreſſed the grief which they all felt at the diſtinctions lately paid to the Perſians. On which Alexander replied, he would conſider them all as kinſmen; and ſuffering Collines and the reſt to kiſs him, a moſt perfect reconciliation immediately took place.

To cement the good underſtanding which now began amongſt his different troops, 9000 of the chief perſons in his army were invited to a great entertainment. The Macedonians he placed neareſt to himſelf, which afforded them the higheſt gratification. The Perſians were alſo well pleaſed at being the next. And the reſt felt no diſcontent at being promiſcuouſly ſeated. Amongſt other toaſts, they drank union to all the nations ſubject to Alexander. Thus, by his great addreſs, Alexander actually turned this revolt to his advantage. And he ſtill further pleaſed the Macedonians, by ſending home all their invalids. At the ſame time granting them particular immunities and privileges in their native country.

Having viſited the capital of Media, and rectified the abuſes which had been committed in that province, he repaired to Babylon, there to finally adjuſt every thing preparatory to his new undertakings. Whilſt he was thus employed, his vanity, if poſſible,

received an increaſe; for ambaſſadors now arrived, from the different ſtates of Greece, with garlands and golden crowns, their emblems of divine honours: Emblems that he ſhould have dreaded, from a recollection of his father's cataſtrophe.

Hiſtorians relate various prognoſtications of his approaching death; and with which he himſelf was deeply affected. After a banquet, at which he had drank to great exceſs, he was taken extremely ill; but for ſome days he bore up againſt it, attending religious duties, and giving all neceſſary directions for his intended expedition. At length, he was confined to his bed; ſoon after which he loſt his ſpeech, though he retained his underſtanding to the laſt. During his ſickneſs, he gave his ring to Perdiccas, as a proof of his regard. But on being aſked, to whom he left his empire, He replied, To the moſt worthy. He, however, foreſaw the broils that would follow, and called them his funeral games. The reign of this ſingular Con-

queror, laſted only twelve years and eight months, from the death of his father Philip. For he expired in the 33d year of his age, and 322 years before the Chriſtian Æra. He left one ſon by Barſine, whoſe name was Hercules; and Roxana was afterwards delivered of a male child, who was called Alexander.

According to ſome accounts, Alexander died of poiſon, which Antipater, the governor of Macedon, cauſed to be adminiſtered. But the better opinion ſeems to be, that his own exceſſes alone occaſioned it. His courage and conduct in the field ſeems never to have been excelled. And his victories were more rapid than thoſe of any other Conqueror. In many inſtances he was diſtinguiſhedly generous and humane, and theſe qualities appear to have been native to him. His vices chiefly proceeded from an immoderate love of wine—from his great and ſudden exaltation—and from attending to the improper ideas of his ſurrounding flatterers. We

muſt alſo recollect, that he was carried off at a time of life, when few princes even begin their career; which though it cannot excuſe, will greatly palliate his faults. But the character of a Conqueror, in no inſtance, deſerves that eſtimation in which it is generally held. When we conſider the multitudes, who are made wretched by the ambitious; their greateſt actions are attended with horror. And there is no good or rational man, but muſt prefer the mild and uſeful excellencies of a Socrates, to all the dazzling glories that ſurround an Alexander.

After great diſſentions, the chief men in Alexander's army, raiſed Philip Aridæus to the vacant diadem. And this gave riſe to a new æra at Babylon, called that of Philip Aridæus, the firſt year of which anſwered to the 425th year of Nabonaſſar. He was brother to the late king; but ſo weak in his underſtanding, as to be merely nominal in his appointment. Perdiccas was then made adminiſtrator of the kingdom. Meleager, com-

mander of the forces. Seleucus, maſter of the horſe. Craterus, treaſurer of the ſtate. Antipater, governor of Macedon and Greece. Ptolemy, who was nominally the ſon of Lagus, but in fact the illegitimate ſon of Philip of Macedon, was governor of Egypt. Antigonus managed the affairs of Pamphylia, Lycia, and Phrygia Major. And Lyſimachus got the ſuperintendence of Thrace. Whilſt the other countries ſubjected by Alexander, remained for the preſent under the controul of thoſe whom he had before appointed.

On the delivery of Roxana, her ſon Alexander was aſſociated in the throne with Philip Aridæus. But Perdiccas, as adminiſtrator, had the full poſſeſſion of the regal power. From the jealouſy which this occaſioned, and other cauſes, various civil wars took place between the different captains. All pretended zeal for the kings; but in fact, Eumenes was the only one who felt it. And Perdiccas being ſlain, Antipater got the poſſeſſion

of the two kings, whom he removed into Macedon.

Antigonus was very ſucceſsful in the wars which had happened, greatly enlarging the bounds of his government; and on the death of Antipater, he denied the orders of Polyſperchon, who then poſſeſſed himſelf of the perſons of Alexander and Philip Aridæus. To ſtrengthen his power, Polyſperchon therefore took Olympias, the mother of the late king, into the adminiſtration. But in this he proved miſtaken, for ſhe raiſed many enemies againſt both, by cutting off Aridæus and his queen Eurydice. And Caſſander, the ſon of Antipater, at the head of his friends, forced Polyſperchon to fly; at the ſame time putting Olympias to death, and confining Roxana and Alexander in the caſtle of Amphipolis: the very city in which moſt of thoſe troops were aſſembled that conquered the Perſian empire.

Antigonus, on hearing of theſe proceedings, exclaimed more loudly againſt Caſſan-

der than he had before done againſt Polyſperchon: and he furniſhed Alexander, the ſon of the latter, with men and money, to relieve Roxana and her ſon. Caſſander, however, found means to bring over Alexander, the ſon of Polyſperchon, to an inſidious peace. Alexander did not long ſurvive this treaty, being taken off by the treachery of Caſſander, who thereupon became extremely powerful throughout Greece and Macedon. His ambition then prompted him to look at the regal dignity; and the unfortunate Roxana, together with the young king, were diſpatched in the caſtle of Amphipolis.

Polyſperchon, himſelf, who had lain for ſome time in concealment, now prevailed on Barſine and her ſon Hercules to paſs into Europe. Caſſander had, thereupon, recourſe to further villainy. He opened a negociation with Polyſperchon, propoſing that Peloponneſus ſhould be his, provided this laſt of the royal blood was deſtroyed. And that overture being accepted, the line of Alexander

was ended in the year 306, by the murder of Hercules.

For the ſixteen years which elapſed from the death of Alexander to that of Hercules; Greece, Macedon, and the provinces which compoſed the Medo Perſian empire, were in one continued ſcene of civil diſſentions: but theſe events being fluctuating, and of no importance to a general hiſtory, I have ſlightly paſſed them over. On the extinction of the regal line, all who had been governors of the chief provinces, aſſumed the title of kings. Caſſander reigned over Macedon and its dependencies. Lyſimachus had Thrace. Antigonus poſſeſſed Syria and moſt part of Aſia Minor. Media, Perſia, and Babylon, belonged to Seleucus. And Ptolemy was the ſovereign of Egypt, Lybia, and parts of Phœnicia and Paleſtine.

Theſe new kings had, however, as yet, no permanent boundaries to their territories, and they had many and frequent wars with each other. The Greek cities having pretty ge-

nerally revolted from Caſſander, Antigonus diſpatched his ſon Demetrius to their aid. His valour and good conduct made him extremely ſucceſsful; but fortunately for Caſſander, Lyſimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus, at this time, united in an attack upon Antigonus. Demetrius was therefore forced to abandon Greece, and having joined his father, they found themſelves at the head of 80,000 men. With theſe, they ventured to engage the united forces of their enemies. This battle, which was fought at Iſſus, was, however, deciſive againſt Antigonus, who loſt his life on the occaſion. Seventy thouſand of his troops were alſo killed, diſperſed, or taken priſoners. With the remaining 10,000, Demetrius made good his retreat. And being unable to contend with ſuch powerful opponents, he repaſſed into Greece, where we ſhall find him engaged in various undertakings.

On the death of Antigonus, which happened about the year 300, a new arrange-

ment took place amongſt his competitors. Lyſimachus got Caria, Phrygia, and Lydia, added to his former territories. Ptolemy had Egypt, Lybia, Ethiopia, Arabia, Phænicia, Cælo-Syria, and Paleſtine. Seleucus, beſides Babylon, Perſia and Media, got Syria and the other provinces of Aſia, which had belonged to Cyrus. So that now Macedon, Greece, and the Medo-Perſian dominion, which had been under one head during the ſhort reign of Alexander, was divided into four extenſive juriſdictions. And in my next I ſhall give you an account of that empire which belonged to Ptolemy Lagus.

THIRD LETTER.

ALEXANDRIA in Egypt, was the place which Ptolemy choſe for the ſeat of his empire. He therefore highly improved that city: and near the entrance of the Nile, he built the tower of Pharos, as a light-houſe for the direction of ſhipping. It was compoſed of white marble, and deemed ſo magnificent, as to be reckoned one of the wonders of the world. But what was infinitely more beneficial, was a great library which he founded in his capital, purchaſing copies of every book that he could hear of. In this collection he was materially aſſiſted by Demetrius Phalerus, a man of great learning, who, on being baniſhed from Athens, found ſhelter in his court. The reign of Lagus is alſo memorable for the life of Euclid, who then flouriſhed at Alexandria, and who brought geometry, and other branches of mathemat-

ics, to a much higher degree of perfection than they had ever before attained to.

About the year 282, Ptolemy Philadelphus ſucceeded his father Lagus. He ſtained the beginning of his reign with the murder of two of his brothers, the one of the full, and the other of the half blood. He alſo threw Demetrius Phalerus into priſon, on account of ſome advice he had given Lagus, touching the ſucceſſion; and that learned Athenian died in confinement.

Philadelphus was ſoon engaged in ſome wars with Antiochus Theos, King of Syria, which terminated in a peace; the condition of which was, that Theos ſhould put away his wife Laodice, by whom he had two ſons, and marry Berenice, the daughter of Ptolemy. It was at the ſame time agreed, that the Syrian diadem ſhould deſcend to the iſſue of the latter, in excluſion of his former offſpring. But we ſhall hereafter ſee that this unjuſt purpoſe did not take effect. Ptolemy was at this time courted both by Carthage

and Rome, the firſt Punic war having broke out between thoſe rival republics. He was, however, in alliance with both, and therefore wiſely declined taking part in a conflict in which he could not be intereſted.

This Prince was a great encourager of literature, adding very conſiderably to the volumes in the Alexandrian library. He was alſo the patron of ſtatuary and painting, ſo that with the Grecian dominion, the Grecian arts were extended over Egypt; and every man of genius was ſure to meet encouragement in the court of Philadelphus. Trade and navigation alſo flouriſhed. The commodities of the Eaſt were brought up the Red Sea, and by means of the Nile, were eaſily conveyed to Alexandria. The produce of thoſe countries which border on the Mediterranean found their way to the ſame port; and Egypt thereby became the greateſt mart of the world; excelling not only Sidon and Tyre, but Carthage itſelf, in all the arts of commerce.

On the death of Philadelphus, Antiochus Theos, King of Syria, put away Berenice, and retook his former wife Laodice. When this was made known to Ptolemy Euergetes, the ſon of Philadelphus, and who now ſwayed the Egyptian ſceptre, he reſolved to reinſtate his ſiſter; but before he could reach Syria, new events had taken place. Theos was poiſoned by Laodice, and her ſon Seleucus Callinicus, who thereupon took the crown, had put Berenice and her ſon to death. Ptolemy however took an ample revenge. Laodice fell into his hands, and was executed. He likewiſe ravaged almoſt all the extenſive territories belonging to Syria; carrying back with him, beſides other ſpoils, no leſs than 2000 ſtatues and pictures. Some of theſe ſtatues had formerly been carried away from Egypt by Cambyſes; and Euergetes made himſelf highly agreeable to the enſlaved Egyptians, by reſtoring them to thoſe temples which they had formerly belonged to.

Garriſons had been left by Euergetes in

ſeveral parts of the Syrian empire, ſome of which were overcome whilſt the Egyptian monarch was preparing new forces. But he no ſooner made his appearance again in the field, than Seleucus ſhut himſelf up in Antioch. He however ſent off to his brother Antiochus Hierax, who governed ſome of the diſtant provinces, for aid, And Ptolemy thought it moſt adviſeable to conclude a peace with Seleucus.

Egypt was ſtill further ſtrengthened and improved by Euergetes. And Apollonius Pergæus, who was a diſciple of Euclid, added to mathematical knowledge, by teaching conic ſections.

Ptolemy Philopater, the ſon of Euergetes, had a brother remarkable for his virtues and abilities; being himſelf extremely vicious, he dreaded ſo oppoſite a character, and cut him off, leſt he ſhould become a rival for the crown. His other acts correſponded with this infamous beginning; and Saſibius, his

favourite miniſter, had diſpoſitions well ſuited to the ſervice of ſuch a maſter. But whilſt they devoted themſelves to wickedneſs, Antiochus the great, now King of Syria, wreſted Cœle-Syria from Egypt; and all the forces ſent by Ptolemy being defeated, a part of Galilee and Judea were likewiſe added to the Syrian territories.

Rouſed by ſuch loſſes, Ptolemy at length took the field in perſon. In an engagement that followed, Antiochus proved unſucceſsful; the conſequence of which was, the reſtoration of Cœle-Syria and Paleſtine. And a peace being concluded, Philopater finiſhed his reign in the indulgence of the moſt odious vices.

Ptolemy Epiphanes was only five years old when the Egyptian ſceptre deſcended to him. Taking the advantage of this minority, Antiochus the great again attacked ſome of the territories of Egypt. He alſo entered into a league with Philip, the then King of Macedon; the object of which was, the diviſion

of thoſe countries which belonged to the infant Epiphanes. But fortunately for the latter, Philopater had renewed the alliance with Rome, which had been firſt entered into by Ptolemy Philadelphus. And that republic now ſo effectually interfered, that Antiochus was forced to make peace on the following terms: He gave a daughter in marriage to Epiphanes, with whom Cœle-Syria, Paleſtine, and Phœnicia, which had been conquered by him, were to be given back as a dowry. But half of the revenues ariſing from thoſe countries were, at the ſame time, reſerved to Antiochus for life.

On attaining his fourteenth year, Epiphanes aſſumed the reins of government. He ſoon gave proofs of a diſpoſition ſimilar to that of his father; and Ariſtomenes, the faithful miniſter of his minority, was put to death, becauſe he oppoſed his vicious inclinations. He plundered his ſubjects without remorſe, during a reign of 24 years; and he

at length was poiſoned by his own favourites, who had reaſon to believe they were on the point of ſharing that fate which had been ſo common to others.

Another minority happened in Egypt, for Philometor, the ſon of Epiphanes, was but ſix years old when the crown devolved upon him. His mother, Cleopatra, daughter to Antiochus the great, however, conducted the firſt eight years of his reign with great propriety. And at her death, Lennæus, an Egyptian Nobleman, took the management of the kingdom.

Though Cœle-Syria, Paleſtine, and Phænicia, were to be reſtored by Antiochus the great, as the portion of his daughter Cleopatra, yet it had never as yet been performed. Lennæus, therefore, in the name of his young maſter, demanded them of Antiochus Epiphanes, the preſent King of Syria. And on a refuſal from that Prince, an Egyptian army was ſent to enforce compliance. It was however defeated, and Antiochus Epi-

phanes, in his turn, led a powerful body of men into the very heart of the kingdom of Egypt.

Beſides proving every where victorious, Philometor himſelf became the captive of Epiphanes. On this the Egyptians appointed Phyſcon, the brother of Philometor, to be their King, who ſtrongly fortified himſelf in Alexandria. Antiochus now conceived, that the beſt way to weaken Egypt, was to create a civil war; for which purpoſe he reſtored Philometor to liberty, at the ſame time evacuating his dominions all but Peluſium: For he well knew that city was a key to Egypt, whenever he ſhould find it expedient to return.

The artful plan of Antiochus did not however ſucceed; as the interference of friends prevented any difference ariſing between Phyſcon and his brother Philometor. Antiochus, therefore, immediately renewed his invaſion; and proving ſucceſsful, he was

on the point of inveſting Alexandria. Fortunately, an application had been before this made to Rome, and ambaſſadors, at this critical inſtant, arrived from that republic. Amongſt theſe was Caius Popilius Lænas, with whom Antiochus was well acquainted. When he approached the Syrian camp, Antiochus, therefore, offered his hand to Lænas. But the haughty Roman rejected it, till he knew whether that King would be the friend or foe of Rome; at the ſame time preſenting him with the decree of the Roman Senate. By this Antiochus was ordered to abandon Egypt, and likewiſe to reſtore the iſland of Cyprus, one of its dependencies, of which he had alſo made himſelf maſter. This was a dreadful blow to his ambitious views, and he therefore begged a little time to conſider of it. When Lænas drawing a circle with his ſtick, round the ſpot on which Antiochus ſtood, declared, he ſhould not leave that ground, till peace or war was proclaimed with Rome. Syria had already ex-

perienced the predominant power of that republic, and Antiochus thought proper to comply; at the ſame time ſending ambaſſadors to Italy, who, in his name, compared the Roman Senators to the immortal gods. And thus were the Ptolemies reſcued from Epiphanes, in the year 167.

Ptolemy Philometor, now gratified Phyſcon with Lybia and Cyrene, according to the directions of the Romans; but ſeveral wars of no importance afterwards took place between the two brothers. About the year 153, Philometor gave his daughter Cleopatra in marriage to Alexander Balas, who had uſurped the Syrian throne. In conſequence of this connexion, Ptolemy marched to Balas's aid, who was attacked by Demetrius, the lawful owner of the crown. But Philometor, by ſome means or other, was brought over to ſide with Demetrius, to whom he now eſpouſed the wife of Balas; and being mortally wounded in a ſubſequent action, he died in the year 145.

According to the cuſtom of Egypt, Philometor had married his own ſiſter Cleopatra, by whom he left an infant ſon. Phyſcon however laid claim to the ſceptre, and approached with a very conſiderable army. He, at the ſame time, made overtures of marriage to Cleopatra, the wife of his brother, who, in order to prevent the effects of a civil war, accepted the propoſal. But the ceremony was ſcarcely performed, till the infamous Phyſcon put the ſon of Philometor to death, even in the arms of his mother; thus reuniting in himſelf the ſovereignty of all the Egyptian territories. And as this happened a very ſhort time prior to the deſtruction of Carthage, the events of his reign will fall in with the next æra of this hiſtory.

FOURTH LETTER.

AFTER the death of Antigonus, Seleucus devoted himſelf to the eſtabliſhment of order throughout the vaſt territories

which now belonged to him. He alſo built a number of magnificent cities, and particularly Antioch in Syria, which he made the capital of his empire. Demetrius, the ſon of Antigonus, had not yet been able to make any effort towards the recovery of what he had loſt. And Seleucus having fallen in love with Stratonice, his daughter, Demetrius conſented to the match. On which Cilicia, and ſome places in Phænicia, were confirmed to Demetrius, being what alone remained to him in Aſia, out of all his father's extenſive dominions.

Demetrius had come over from Greece, to the celebration of his daughter's nuptials, but immediately returned, being engaged in ſeveral very arduous undertakings. Whilſt he was thus employed, Lyſimachus made an attack on Cilicia; and Demetrius proving unfortunate in Greece, paſſed into Aſia with only 11,000 men. With this ſmall force he, however, declared, he would not only ſecure Cilicia, but that he would alſo recover the

whole that had been wreſted from Antigonus. Seleucus, therefore, took the field againſt him, and Demetrius, after a wonderful diſplay of courage and military genius, was at length obliged to ſurrender. He was then confined to a particular caſtle and diſtrict, where he was treated with great tenderneſs and reſpect. But giving himſelf up to exceſſive drinking, it in a ſhort time put an end to his life and his misfortunes.

Not long after the death of Demetrius, Seleucus was involved in a war with Lyſimachus, and in the year 282 the latter was ſlain in battle. The conſequence was, that thoſe countries of Aſia Minor, which had belonged to Lyſimachus, fell to the Conqueror. He alſo claimed both Thrace and Macedon, Macedon having been before united to the territories of Lyſimachus. He therefore paſſed into Europe in order to poſſeſs himſelf of them; where he was treacherouſly ſlain, as will in another place be more particularly recounted. The Æra called Seleuci-

dæ took its riſe from this king, the firſt date of which was in the year 312.

In the year 281 Antiochus Soter took poſſeſſion of the ſceptre, which had been ſwayed by Seleucus. He would have purſued the European claims made by his father, but a body of Gauls at that time overran the countries in diſpute. When they were expelled, Antigonus Gonatus, King of Macedon, who poſſeſſed himſelf of them, made overtures of peace. It was concluded on this condition, that he ſhould marry Phyla, the daughter of Stratonice, by Seleucus. And with her all pretenſions to the European territories of Lyſimachus were given up, by way of dowry.

Stratonice, who was remarkable for her beauty, had been given to Soter in the life of his father. This appears almoſt incredible, yet is ſo well authenticated, as not to be doubted. Stratonice was extremely young, and Antiochus felt a paſſion which he carefully concealed. But Seleucus ſeeing him daily pining away, made himſelf maſter of

the ſecret; and to ſave the life of his ſon, he relinquiſhed his queen. Indeed there ſeems to have been little or no reſtraint amongſt the Aſiatics, or the Greeks who ſettled amongſt them, as to matrimonial connexions; for we meet with repeated inſtances of inceſt in almoſt every part of their hiſtory.

In the year 262, Antiochus Theos ſucceeded his father Soter. During his wars with Egypt, the provinces beyond the Euphrates revolted, and ſome new kingdoms were ariſing in that quarter; ſo that when Theos was poiſoned by his wife Laodice, as related in the Egyptian hiſtory, he left his ſon Seleucus Callinicus a very diſmembered empire.

After Seleucus Callinicus made peace with Egypt, his brother Antiochus Hierax turned the forces he had raiſed to repel Ptolemy to the conqueſt of the Syrian crown, and Seleucus was defeated in a battle that followed. He however gained time to retrieve his affairs, by the means of Eumenes, who now took the title of King of Pergamus; for An-

tiochus was compelled to march againſt him, and proving unſucceſsful, Seleucus again met him in the field. Several actions were the conſequence, in which victory at laſt declared for Seleucus; and Hierax did not long ſurvive it.

Attalus, the ſucceſſor of Eumenes, enlarged the kingdom of Pergamus, by ſubjecting a new ſtate in Aſia Minor, called Gallatia. It had been formed by a body of Gauls, who had paſſed over from Thrace, and made good a ſettlement. And they became a very great addition to the riſing ſtate began by Eumenes. Some other powerful nations were alſo beginning at this time in Aſia; the greateſt part of whoſe territories were ſevered from the dominions of the firſt Seleucus. Theodotus made good a uſurpation of Bactria. Mithridates had become King of Pontus. And Arſaces erected the kingdom, called Parthia. By the latter Seleucus Callinicus was at length taken priſoner, and afterwards died in captivity.

Seleucus, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Callinicus, was extremely weak in his capacity. He, however, entruſted his affairs to a relation, named Achæus, who was poſſeſſed of great virtue and abilities. Achæus was, therefore, diſpatched againſt Attalus, King of Pergamus, who had nearly made himſelf maſter of all Aſia Minor. But during his abſence, Seleucus was poiſoned by two of his principal officers, though their motive is not well aſcertained. Achæus puniſhed them with death; and the army would have given him the vacant crown, had not his virtue forbade him to accept it.

Antiochus, the brother of Seleucus, and afterwards ſurnamed The Great, was now raiſed to the throne. He was at this time only fifteen years old, and Achæus being continued in Aſia Minor, very ſoon compelled Attalus to relinquiſh what he had uſurped. In other quarters things were not quite ſo favourable. Perſia and Media revolted, under the direction of two brothers, who

were governors there, the one named Molo, the other Alexander. Two different armies, that were ſent againſt them, were defeated, and Babylonia and Meſopotamia then ſubmitted to the ſucceſsful governors. Theſe accounts rouſed Antiochus, who had been employed in ſome conteſts with the Egyptians, and he reſolved to go in perſon againſt the rebel brothers. And being crowned with ſucceſs, Molo and Alexander deſtroyed themſelves, rather than fall into the hands of the victor.

Hermias, the favourite miniſter of Antiochus, had been guilty of many atrocious crimes. He had frequently deceived his maſter, and brought his reſentment on the innocent; till being at length diſcovered, he was executed by order of Antiochus. Amongſt other things, Hermias had forged letters in the name of Achæus, in order to get rid of ſo formidable a rival in the King's favour. And having no way of clearing up his innocence, Achæus was driven to a re-

volt. This he did with ſo much ſucceſs, that he was acknowledged King over the moſt conſiderable part of Aſia Minor. But Antiochus being now aided by Attalus, King of Pergamus, was able to ſubdue him. And though he ſhed tears, on ſeeing a man to whom he formerly owed ſo much, Achæus was beheaded by his orders.

All the provinces of Aſia Minor having come back to their duty, Antiochus turned his arms againſt Arſaces the Second, King of Parthia. This he did becauſe Media had been attacked by him; but it ended in a treaty, by which Hyrcania and Parthia was confirmed to Arſaces. And, in return, he was to aid Antiochus in ſubjecting all the other revolted provinces. Antiochus, however, thought proper to make terms alſo with Euthydemus, the then King of Bactria. And having ſpent ſeven years in ſettling the remote parts of his empire, he returned to Antioch.

Peace was concluded with Egypt on the

terms already mentioned; and Antiochus then renewed the claim to Thrace, upon the principle of Seleucus having conquered Lyſimachus. He accordingly paſſed over a conſiderable force, and was preparing a greater, when ambaſſadors arrived from Rome. That republic was at this time deeply engaged in the affairs of Greece, and did not chooſe ſuch a neighbour as Antiochus. They therefore inſiſted that he ſhould withdraw his forces, and never again ſet foot in Europe. This was as peremptorily refuſed by the Syrian monarch, who thereupon joined the Greek ſtates againſt Rome; and croſſing the ſea, he took the command of their united armies.

Antiochus would not have been ſo ready to defy the Roman power, had it not been for an illuſtrious exile, who arrived in his court juſt before the ambaſſadors. This was Hannibal, the Carthaginian, whoſe hiſtory we ſhall find in the courſe of this work. But being the decided enemy of Rome, he

fomented the quarrel, till it thus ended in an open rupture with the monarch of Syria.

The ill ſucceſs of Antiochus in Greece, you will ſee elſewhere. It is enough, for the preſent, to ſay, that he was forced to return to Aſia. His fleet was likewiſe beat by the Romans, and their ally Eumenes, king of Pergamus. To revenge himſelf on the latter, Antiochus and his ſon Seleucus, now ravaged the territories of Eumenes. But the Roman Admiral Æmilius, by his exertions, prevented any material change, as to the kingdom of Pergamus.

Hannibal, who had been latterly appointed a Syrian Admiral, proved unſucceſsful in a ſea engagement, wherein he commanded. Another action ſoon after followed, in which the Romans and their allies had only 80 ſhips, whilſt the Syrian were nine more in number. But the Rhodians, who were on the part of Rome, having for the firſt time introduced a few fire ſhips, it decided the day. And the fleet of Antiochus was utterly deſtroyed.

In the panic which followed this misfortune, the uſual abilities of Antiochus forſook him. Thrace had many ſtrong places, and Abydus was a fortreſs of great conſequence. But inſtead of delaying the Roman forces, who were advancing to the Helleſpont, by retaining theſe poſts, they were all abandoned. And the enemy was ſuffered to land in Aſia Minor without the ſmalleſt oppoſition.

Antiochus himſelf, aſſembled his forces in Cappadocia, Ariarathes, its king, being his ſon in law. From thence, he however ſent to treat of peace; but the two Scipios, demanded ſo much on the part of the Romans, that Antiochus thought, were he even vanquiſhed, the terms of accommodation could not be more unfavorable; and he therefore reſolved to hazard an engagement.

Four legions of 5,500 men each, with 7000 auxiliaries and ſixteen elephants, conſtituted the Roman army. And Scipio Africanus being ill, it was under the ſole conduct

of Scipio, afterwards ſirnamed Aſiaticus. The Syrian force was better than 70,000 men, beſides 54 elephants. Antiochus was, however, totally defeated, loſing 50,000 foot and 4000 horſe, whilſt only 3 or 400 fell on the part of his adverſaries. And peace on the following terms was the conſequence of this victory.

Antiochus for ever relinquiſhed all his pretenſions in Europe, and likewiſe to that part of Aſia-Minor, which lies on the European ſide of Mount Taurus. He was to train no more elephants for war. He was to ſurrender up all his ſhips, and never more to poſſeſs at one time, more than ten veſſels, nor were they to have more than thirty oars each. He was to pay to Rome, by ſtated gales, no leſs than 50,000 Eubaic talents, and he was likewiſe to give a conſiderable ſum to Eumenes, king of Pergamus. Hannibal, with ſome particular Greeks in his ſervice, were alſo to be delivered up. And for the performance of all theſe articles, 20 hoſtages of

conſequence were given, one of whom was the King's ſon, whoſe name was likewiſe Antiochus.

The Romans did not themſelves acquire any Aſiatic territory, on this occaſion. They reſtored all the Greek cities to liberty. And they rewarded Eumenes and the Rhodians with the reſt of thoſe countries which had been ceded in Aſia Minor.

Antiochus th Great, did not long ſurvive this reverſe of fortune. And he died a violent death, as is generally ſuppoſed, whilſt pillaging a temple, that he might fulfil his engagements with Rome. His ſon Seleucus then reigned eleven years without any thing memorable; at the end of which, he was poiſoned by Heliodorus, a favourite miniſter, who thereupon uſurped the crown. Antiochus Epiphanes, the younger ſon of Antiochus the Great, had been a little before ſet at liberty by the Romans, Demetrius the ſon of the late Seleucus, being ſent as a hoſtage in his ſtead. Having got as far as Athens

when the news of his brother's murder firſt reached him, Antiochus inſtantly ſet out for Aſia. He then procured the aſſiſtance of Eumenes, king of Pergamus, and having drove out Heliodorus, he made himſelf maſter of the Syrian ſceptre.

We are already acquainted with this monſter's character, as well as with thoſe wars which he waged with Egypt and Judea. Towards the cloſe of his reign, he was engaged in the ſuppreſſion of a revolt in Perſia and Armenia. There he received the news of the ſurpriſing ſucceſſes of Judas Macabæus. And was haſtening back with the reſolution of extirpating the Jews, when he was ſeized with a dreadful diſeaſe. Lice iſſued from all parts of his body; and feeling the hand of God upon him, he attempted to ward it off, by declaring he would treat the Jews with the utmoſt kindneſs, if his life was ſpared. His cruelties, to which he had added the moſt infamous debaucheries, were, however, here to cloſe, and he expir-

ed, univerſally abhorred, after a reign of about eleven years.

Antiochus Eupator, the ſon of Epiphanes, then only nine years old, was crowned at Antioch, under the guardianſhip of Licias. But Demetrius Soter, who ſtill remained a hoſtage at Rome, and who was ſon to Seleucus, the ſucceſſor of Antiochus the Great, very juſtly put in his claim to the throne of Syria. He, however, in vain ſolicited his releaſe; for the Roman Senate conceiving the minority of Eupator more favorable to their views, not only confirmed him, but ſent four ſenators to govern his territories till he arrived at maturity. Theſe ſenators, contrary to the treaty with Antiochus the Great, found a conſiderable number of trained elephants, and a great many ſhips. They therefore began their adminiſtration by deſtroying both; and Lyſias in revenge, had one of them aſſaſſinated; the conſequence of which was, a ſort of civil war in Syria.

In this critical ſituation Demetrius, who had accompliſhed his eſcape from Rome, now made his appearance. Having got Lycias and Eupator into his power, he began with putting them to death. And making good his pretenſions to the vacant crown, he afterwards found means to conclude a peace with the Senate of Rome.

Demetrius was engaged in ſome wars of no conſequence before he obtained the peaceable poſſeſſion of his dominions. He then gave himſelf up entirely to pleaſure, neglecting all the duties of a King. Heraclides, a Syrian of conſequence, whom Demetrius had baniſhed, was induced by ſuch a conduct to raiſe up a competitor to the crown; for which purpoſe he fixed on Alexander Balas, Rhodian of mean birth, but of great addreſs and capacity; at the ſame time giving out, that he was a ſon of Antiochus Epiphanes, who had hitherto been kept in concealment. This impoſture was countenanced at Rome, where Demetrius was ſtill obnoxious. And

being aſſiſted by the kings of Egypt, Pergamus and Cappadocia, Balas took the field againſt Demetrius. In this attempt he proved ſucceſsful, for Demetrius falling in battle, Balas was immediately acknowledged as the Syrian monarch.

But this exaltation only proved him to be totally unworthy of power. He was guilty of the groſſeſt debaucheries; and the creatures he entruſted with the affairs of his kingdom practiſed various cruelties. Demetrius, the ſon of Demetrius Soter, therefore attacked this uſurper. And being aided by Ptolemy Philometor of Egypt, as I have before mentioned, Balas fled into Arabia, where he was afterwards treacherouſly ſlain. This happened about the year 145, and Demetrius, ſurnamed Nicator, thereupon poſſeſſed himſelf of the Syrian diadem.

I ſhall conclude this letter, by briefly touching on the other kingdoms which had, at this period, become conſpicuous in Aſia.

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The kingdom of Pergamus began a very little after the death of Lyſimachus, King of Thrace, but was of little conſequence till the times of Antiochus the Great. The Greater and Leſſer Armenia made two diſtinct ſtates, during the conteſt between Antiochus the Great and the Romans. Cappadocia had made itſelf independent ſoon after the death of Alexander; Ariarathes the Seventh being its king about the year 141; but as yet it was of no material weight. Pontus had likewiſe its own kings, from the death of Antigonus; and Pharnaces the Firſt was cotemporary with Ariarathes the Seventh of Cappadocia. Bithynia had alſo become a diſtinct ſtate, over which Nicomedes the Second reigned, at the end of this Æra. Bactria, after its independence was acknowledged by Antiochus the Great, was overrun by the Parthians and Scythians; the former obtaining part of its territories, and kings of the latter extraction reigning over the remainder. As to Parthia itſelf, it was riſing

with rapidity; and we ſhall, in my next period, ſee it the only ſtate that was able to bid defiance to the Roman power.

FIFTH LETTER.

I SHALL now proceed to Macedon and Greece, beginning with the time that Alexander ſubdued the Perſian empire. Immediately after that event, he iſſued an edict, enjoining all the Greek cities to recall their exiles. This was an open and avowed exerciſe of the ſupreme power, which neither he, nor his father Philip, had ever before attempted. But though they ſaw their liberties were no more, they did not dare to diſobey. And during the ſhort reign of that great Conqueror, they ſubmitted to all his injunctions.

When the news of Alexander's death was brought into Europe, freſh hopes aroſe in

the breaſts of the Grecians; who ſtill retained a reliſh for liberty, though they had become unworthy, and indeed incapable, of its enjoyment. Athens, and ſeveral other ſtates, immediately levied forces, taking the field againſt the governor of Greece and Macedon. But their efforts were totally ineffectual; and they were very ſoon obliged to ſubmit to the troops of Antipater.

Demoſthenes having been the chief promoter of this new effort, fled to an iſland not far from Athens, before the reduction of that city. But being purſued and made priſoner, he rather choſe to take poiſon, than abide by the puniſhment he might expect from his enemies. He is allowed to have been the moſt nervous and argumentative orator the world ever produced. And his integrity, and love of country, is alſo celebrated. But he was timid in real exertions, being among the firſt who ran away in the battle of Chæronea. On which occaſion, miſtaking a buſh, that his garment caught

on, for a man, he implored it to ſpare his life. Yet when we read his animated calls on the Athenians to war with Philip, we ſhould be led to ſuppoſe, that Demoſthenes would have acted like a lion in the field. Indeed it is probable, he might have thought ſo himſelf. But hiſtory informs us, that his frame and conſtitution were delicate; and thoſe involuntary emotions of fear, which are recorded, rather deſerve our pity than our condemnation.

A Macedonian garriſon was now placed in Athens, to prevent any future revolt; the laws of Solon were, however, at the ſame time compleatly reſtored by Antipater. He alſo ſtudied the happineſs of all the other ſtates, in ſo much as to be ſtiled the father of Greece. But his death, which happened ſoon after, gave a total change to the face of affairs, new diſturbances breaking out in every quarter.

Antipater, in his laſt moments, gave the

ſtrongeſt proof of a virtuous diſpoſition. Inſtead of tranſmitting the care of the kings, and conſequently the adminiſtration, to his own ſon Caſſander, he left both to Polyſperchon. He was an officer who had highly diſtinguiſhed himſelf; and Antipater conceived him to be equal to the important office which was repoſed in him. In this he was, however, miſtaken; for, contrary to the moſt pointed advice of his deceaſed benefactor, Polyſperchon admitted Olympias, the mother of Alexander the Great, to become a ſharer in the adminiſtration. Being of the moſt violent and vindictive ſpirit, Olympias began with removing all whom Antipater had intruſted. She alſo cauſed Philip Aridæus and his queen to be diſpatched; and by various tyrannic acts, a hoſt of enemies were raiſed againſt herſelf and Polyſperchon. Theſe were headed by Caſſander, under whoſe ſtandard all the friends of his father now united. The conſequence of which was, the expulſion of Polyſperchon—the execution

of Olympias—and the impriſonment of Alexander and his mother Roxana.

During the conteſts between Caſſander and Polyſperchon, Phocion was put to death by the people of Athens. This was occaſioned by his differing from them on a public queſtion. Their injuſtice, however, ſoon appeared ſo flagrant, that they executed Agonides, his chief accuſer, and erected a ſtatue to the memory of Phocion. In my laſt Æra, you have ſeen this great man active in the affairs of Athens. And to give you his character in a few words, He was extremely eloquent—yet greater in the field than in the cabinet. And what is ſtill more, he was a man of the moſt inflexible integrity.

Demetrius Phalerus, a noble Athenian, and the intimate friend of Phocion, had narrowly eſcaped a ſimilar fate. He was remarkable for his learning, abilities, and virtues; and Caſſander now entruſted him with the government of Athens. This authority he

exerciſed ſo as to confer happineſs on his countrymen. And they, who ſo very lately would have deſtroyed him, raiſed 300 ſtatues to his honour.

Not only Greece and Macedon, but Epirus alſo, for a time, ſubmitted to Caſſander. Æacides was then king of the latter, and fled with Polyſperchon; but the crown was recovered by his ſon Alcetas. The murder of Alexander, Roxana, and Hercules, you have already read of; and on the death of the laſt, Caſſander openly aſſumed the regal dignity.

Though the Greeks appeared to bear the yoke with patience, an opportunity alone was wanting to rouſe them to freſh commotions. And as the conduct of Caſſander was loudly condemned by Antigonus, he ſent his ſon Demetrius, who is diſtinguiſhed by the addition of Poliorcetes, to direct the latent ſpirit of the Greeks. The Athenians inſtantly joined him, driving out Demetrius Phalerus, who would have loſt his life, but for the kind interference of his name ſake. The

democracy was then reſtored, and Phalerus's ſtatues being thrown down, others were raiſed to Poliorcetes and his father Antigonus. They were alſo honoured as gods, with prieſts to celebrate their rites; and from this inſtitution the Athenian year was thenceforth to be commemorated. Caſſander in vain attempted to renew the ſubjection of Athens, for inſtead of ſucceeding, Demetrius Poliorcetes drove him entirely out of Greece; and even Macedon was in danger, when Demetrius was recalled to the aid of his father Antigonus.

After the unfortunate battle of Iſſus, Demetrius looked for an aſylum at Athens. Vain hope—and he would himſelf have thought ſo, had he rightly underſtood the corruption that prevailed in this latterly infamous city. They abſolutely refuſed even to let him within their walls. He had, however, the ſatisfaction of forcing them ſoon after to ſubmit; and he then ſecured their fidelity, by ſtrongly garriſoning both their

city and port. Moſt of Peloponneſus was likewiſe conquered by his arms. And by an extraordinary chain of circumſtances, the crown of Macedon itſelf was placed upon his head.

Caſſander, at his death, left three ſons, Philip, Antipater, and Alexander. The firſt did not long ſurvive him, and though Antipater ſucceeded to the crown, he found a competitor in his brother Alexander. Their mother ſided with the latter, for which the former put her to death, thereby rendering himſelf obnoxious to the beſt of his ſubjects. In this ſituation, Alexander applied to Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and alſo to Demetrius Poliorcetes, for aid, and both promiſed their ſupport. But before Demetrius could arrive with his army, Pyrrhus had brought the two brothers to give him a part of their territories, and to divide the remainder.

Demetrius had been put to conſiderable expence, and when he arrived in the neigh-

bourhood of Alexander's army, he very juſtly complained of his not having been conſidered in the late arrangement. Alexander thereupon viſited Demetrius, as ſome ſay with inſidious intentions. But let that be as it may, he loſt his life on the occaſion. And Poliorcetes had the art to get over his army, which united with his own in declaring him king of Macedon. The only claim he could make to this crown, was his being married to Phila, the ſiſter of Caſſander. But this vague title would have done him no good, had not Antipater been deteſted. That prince was, in fact, able to make little or no oppoſition. And Demetrius, who had ſo lately loſt a great Aſiatic kingdom, now found himſelf moſt unexpectedly raiſed to the original throne of Alexander the Great.

The loſs of this kingdom was, however, almoſt as ſudden as its acquirement. Unequal to good fortune, he greatly abuſed his power. And Pyrrhus, king of Epyrus, taking the advantage of the conſequent change

of the Macedonian affections, openly contended for their crown. The troops of Demetrius inſtantly deſerted, and in order to ſave his life, he abandoned every enſign of royalty, diſguiſing himſelf in the habit of a ſlave. In this manner he eſcaped into Greece, where the news of this change of fortune no ſooner arrived, than the Athenians threw down both his and his father's ſtatues; at the ſame time aboliſhing the rites and inſtitution of prieſts, which had been created to their honour. Demetrius, however, with the ſmall army he was ſtill able to raiſe, had the ſatisfaction of obliging Athens to ſolicit his forgiveneſs, which they obtained. And then paſſing into Aſia, he met with that fate which has been already related.

Antigonus Gonatus, the ſon of Demetrius, was at the head of conſiderable forces in Bœotia and Peloponneſus, notwithſtanding the misfortunes of his father. And not long after the death of Poliorcetes, he regained the crown of Macedon. It is here neceſſary

to obſerve, that Lyſimachus, king of Thrace, had obliged Pyrrhus to reſign Macedon to him. On the death of Lyſimachus, Seleucus, his conqueror, laid claim to it. But Ptolemy Ceraunus, the ſon of Ptolemy Lagus, having fled from Egypt and ſettled in Thrace, treacherouſly murdered Seleucus, at the ſame time making himſelf maſter of Macedon. Juſt at that time the Gauls invaded thoſe parts; and Ceraunus falling in battle, Antigonus Gonatus made good his pretenſions to the vacant diadem.

But this fluctuating ſceptre was not yet to become permanent. Pyrrhus, who had been abſent on an Italian expedition, now returned, and forced Antigonus to retreat into Peloponneſus. Not contented with this, he purſued him into that peninſula. A battle near Argos was the conſequence, in which Pyrrhus was ſlain. The Macedonian crown then reverted to Gonatus. And after ſeveral engagements with Alexander, the ſon of Pyrrhus, in which Antigonus's ſon, Deme-

trius, peculiarly diſtinguiſhed himſelf, the ſceptre was at length confirmed to the line of Poliorcetes.

Beſides the poſſeſſion of Macedon, Greece was in fact at his diſpoſal. The governor, or tyrant, of every city, looked up to him for ſupport, and their own power depended on that connexion. The citadel of Corinth, which from its ſituation gave the command of Peloponneſus, Gonatus obtained by ſtratagem, placing in it a ſtrong garriſon of Macedonians. And Thrace, being again divided into a number of petty ſtates, there was no power in this quarter that could overturn the dominion of Antigonus.

But though the democracies were every where ſuppreſſed, and the ſupreme power lodged in one perſon, there were many cities that wiſhed moſt ardently for the reſtoration of their former governments. Two cities of Achaia, named Patra and Dyma, at length ventured to reſtore their democracies. Ægion immediately after expelled its Macedonian

garriſon, and did the ſame. And Bura and Ceraunia ſoon followed the example. A league between theſe five cities then took place; and in the year 259, theſe, of all the Grecian towns alone, poſſeſſed their freedom. Sicyon, under the conduct of Aratus, a youth of only twenty years, next joined in the confederacy. But Aratus did not ſtop there, for by his abilities the citadel of Corinth was taken, and the Corinthians likewiſe threw off their yoke. Several other cities of Peloponneſus followed in reſtoring free forms of government. And Antigonus having now no other means of getting into Peloponneſus but by ſea, found it his beſt policy to quietly ſubmit to this diminution of his authority.

The Achæan league, for ſo it was called, now eſtabliſhed a regular ſyſtem of co-operation. Each city ſent two deputies, twice in every year, to a general aſſembly, by which all regulations were made; and any city that failed in obedience to its orders, was com-

pelled by the reſt to compliance. This aſſembly alſo elected an annual Chief, or Prætor, who preſided both in the council and the field. Ten men were in the ſame way choſen to aſſiſt the Prætor, and in his abſence they preſided in civil affairs. They alſo called extra aſſemblies, in caſes of emergency. And the Prætor could propoſe no law, unleſs he firſt had a majority of thoſe ten in favour of it. No city of the league could form any connexion without the conſent of all. Nor could any city be admitted a member of the confederacy, but on the ſame condition. And to prevent delay and procraſtination, the aſſembly was never continued more than three days at one time.

Aratus attempted to reſtore the Athenians to freedom; in which he was oppoſed by Demetrius, who had ſucceeded his father Antigonus. What force however could not accompliſh, gold performed. For Aratus lent the Athenians 20 talents, with which they bribed their governor. And having got

the Macedonian garriſon out of their city, they for a time regained their liberty.

I ſhall here take a conciſe view of the preſent ſtate of Sparta. A little after the commencement of the firſt Punic war, Agis and Leonidas were its kings. The latter had been a good deal in the Syrian court, where he had acquired a taſte for every kind of luxury and gratification. The former, though only 20 years old, regretted the depravities now practiſed at Sparta, and reſolved to reſtore the regulations of Lycurgus, which had been broken through in various inſtances. At firſt he was joined by his countrymen, and Leonidas was baniſhed for oppoſing him. But the fickle people ſoon recalled him; and their reſentment being then directed againſt Agis, he took ſhelter in the temple of Neptune. From thence he was drawn by ſtratagem, and tried and condemned by the Ephori, for attempting to overthrow the conſtitution.

Agis met his ſentence and execution with

the moſt undaunted reſolution, glorying in the attempt he had made, and declaring he did not conceive himſelf an object of pity. Lament not me, ſays he, to a weeping ſervant, for I die with innocence. But weep for thoſe who have been guilty of this injuſtice. And ſuch an attempt as Agis made, with ſuch a conduct under the misfortunes it occaſioned, has more real heroiſm than the gaining of a thouſand victories.

The regal power now became veſted in the infamous Leonidas, who was at the bottom of this bloody and unjuſt tranſaction; and by him it was tranſmitted to his ſon Cleomenes. This reign commenced with a miſunderſtanding with the Achæan league. Aratus was thereupon appointed to lead the forces of the latter againſt the Spartans. Cleomenes, however, was generally ſucceſsful. And having raiſed himſelf extremely high in the opinion of his ſubjects, he reſolved to renew the attempt in which Agis had proved ſo unfortunate.

The firſt thing he did was to deſtroy the

Ephori. They were no part of Lycurgus's inſtitution, and had, in fact, annihilated the regal power. Having accompliſhed this, he propoſed to the aſſembled people, that all things ſhould be again in common; beginning himſelf, and throwing the whole of his own wealth into the public ſtock. In this he was followed by his neareſt friends and relations: after which a new diviſion of the lands was likewiſe effected. And having revived the other laws of Lycurgus, he concluded with aſſociating his brother Euclidas in the ſovereignty, that two lines of kings might alſo be reſtored. He then added example to precept, living with the utmoſt frugality and purity of manners. At the ſame time, that he was equally diſtinguiſhed for the greateſt courteſy and affability.

Having given a new degree of vigour to Sparta, he again took the field againſt her enemies; and the Achæan league was at length obliged to ſolicit peace. To this Cleomenes conſented, provided they would ap-

point him Generaliſſimo of all their forces. Such was the ſtate of the Achæan affairs, that this would have been agreed to, but for the intrigues of Aratus. He, however, prevailed in getting an application made to Antigonus Doſon, who had ſucceeded his brother Demetrius in the throne of Macedon. And to ſecure his aid, and expedite his approach, they put him in poſſeſſion of the important citadel of Corinth.

Antigonus Doſon no ſooner entered Peloponneſus, than he gave a decided ſuperiority to the Achæans. Cleomenes was driven from all his conqueſts; and Sparta itſelf was, for the firſt time, taken by an enemy. The Lacedemonians being thus ſubdued, Cleomenes, the moſt virtuous perhaps of all her kings, took ſhelter in the court of Egypt. But his misfortunes did not ceaſe there; for Ptolemy Philopater, on his acceſſion, uſed him with the greateſt cruelty. And it not being repugnant to the religious notions of

the heathens, the unhappy monarch put an end to his exiſtence.

Sparta, in fact, was now made a province to Antigonus. He, however, gave them a ſenate and Ephori for their government, and they quietly ſubmitted to the new arrangement. Nothing further of conſequence happened to Greece during the ſhort time which Doſon reigned. And, at his death, Philip, the ſon of his brother Demetrius, ſucceeded to the crown.

A number of cities in Ætolia were leagued much in the ſame way with thoſe of Achaia; and a war at this time broke out between theſe two confederacies. In it the Ætolians had the advantage, on which Philip was ſolicited by the Achæans. He accordingly entered Peloponneſus, and attacked the Eleans, who had joined Ætolia. In that country he obtained a prodigious ſpoil, it having become extremely rich by means of the Olympic games. And having ended the campaign,

he took up his winter quarters in the city of Argos.

The Ætolians, by their emiſſaries, having raiſed a revolt amongſt the Lacedemonians, the Ephori, who were the creatures of Philip, were deſtroyed. The Spartans then made Ageſipolis and Lycurgus their kings, according to the old form of government. Ageſipolis was, however, in a ſhort time baniſhed, on which the ſole power of the regal dignity devolved on Lycurgus.

The Ætolians, Eleans, and Spartans, were able to oppoſe the Achæans, though aided by Philip, and a number of ſieges and battles were attended with various ſucceſs. It would probably have been more decided in favour of Philip, but for the underhand conduct of Apelles, his favourite. He ſtirred up jealouſies between his maſter and Aratus, which was very detrimental to the general intereſt; and he alſo, in ſeveral inſtances, thwarted the military operations, by delaying neceſſary ſtores. It was at length ſuſpected,

that he aimed at the Macedonian crown. And ſufficient circumſtances of a treaſonable conduct appearing, he and his ſon, with two or three more, were put to death. Aratus was then reſtored to the confidence of Philip, who got him again raiſed to be the Achæan Prætor. And a favourable change of affairs immediately took place.

At this time the news of Hannibal's ſucceſs in Italy was received in Greece. Philip was extremely ambitious, and in his own mind he was convinced, that a vaſt ſcope was thereby opened for its exertion. He argued, that if he ſhould throw himſelf into the Carthaginian ſcale, the Roman power muſt be annihilated. And he drew the moſt favourable inferences as to his own elevation. He therefore reſolved to paſs into Italy; and the Ætolians, with their confederates, making overtures of peace, it was concluded on the ſimple terms, that all ſhould keep what they then had in their poſſeſſion. Such was the

concluſion of that war, which was ſtiled the war of the confederates.

The intentions of Philip were no ſooner known at Rome, than a negociation began from that republic to the Ætolians. They were far from ſatisfied with the late peace, though neceſſity had made them ſolicit it. They therefore immediately embraced an alliance with the Romans, in which they were joined by the Eleans and Spartans. Two petty princes of Illyria were alſo brought into the ſame confederacy; ſo that Philip found ample buſineſs on his hands without paſſing into Italy. Much about this time the great Aratus is ſuppoſed to have been poiſoned at the inſtigation of Philip, as he had thwarted ſome of that Prince's deſigns. And hiſtorians alſo add, that the ſon of Aratus died by the ſame means, probably from the fear Philip entertained of his reſentment, his wife having been debauched by that infamous monarch. The eldeſt Aratus was the very ſoul of the Achæan league.

He had been 17 times their Prætor, and had done infinite ſervices in that capacity. They therefore inſtituted divine rites to his memory, which was honoured till the lateſt day of Grecian liberty.

Philopœmen took the lead in Achaia on the death of Aratus, and being an ally of Philip, he ſucceſsfully attacked the Spartans. Philip was alſo for ſome time ſuperior to the combination which had been formed againſt him. But the arrival of ſome Roman forces, and likewiſe of Attalus, king of Pergamus, the friend of Rome, ſoon changed the ſituation of Philip. And in conſequence thereof, a general peace took place; the chief article of which was, that Philip ſhould break an alliance which he had lately made with Carthage.

The reſtleſs ambition of Philip did not allow any long duration to this treaty. He made a freſh attack on Ætolia, which again brought in the Romans; and the Achæan league was alſo for this time againſt the Ma-

cedonians. At firſt Philip had the Spartans in his favour; but they likewiſe went over to Rome. And Philip, having loſt moſt of his forces in this unequal conteſt, was forced to the following humiliating terms: That he ſhould withdraw all his garriſons out of Greece, before the Iſthmian games, which were juſt at hand, ſhould commence. He accordingly did ſo, and Flaminius, the Roman Proconſul, then declared, that all the Grecian cities were free. The joy on this occaſion was exceſſive. And the Achæans, in order to teſtify their gratitude to Rome, redeemed 12,000 Romans whom the Carthaginians had ſold into ſlavery.

The Ætolians and Spartans were, however, ſecretly diſpleaſed, notwithſtanding their outward appearance; for they had loſt ſeveral towns in the late conteſts. When they found that Antiochus the Great was at variance with Rome, they therefore courted a junction with him; and Philip of Macedon likewiſe appeared to be of this party.

Nabis, who had made himſelf tyrant of

Sparta, began the war by attacking the Achæans, who were now the avowed friends of Rome. Philopœmen was the general employed againſt the Lacedemonians, and his efforts proving ſucceſsful, Nabis, who was a deteſtable wretch, was cut off by his own people. After which the Spartans joined the Achæans, inſtead of continuing their league with Antiochus and the Ætolians.

The firſt place which Antiochus arrived at was the iſland of Eubœa. Here he married a beautiful girl, to whom he gave up his whole time, inſtead of attending to the important conteſt in which he was involved. From this he was rouſed, by receiving intelligence that a conſiderable body of Romans, under M. Acilius Galba, had landed in Greece. To oppoſe them, Antiochus thought proper to take poſt at the famous ſtreights of Thermopylæ, with the intention of waiting there till a great reinforcement ſhould arrive from Syria. But the ſuperior ſkill and courage of the Romans drove him from

Thermopylæ, with the loſs of moſt of his troops; and having firſt repaſſed into Eubœa, he proceeded from thence to Aſia Minor.

This ſucceſs of Galba effectually prevented any hoſtilities on the part of Philip; and the Ætolians being nearly left to themſelves, were only able to act on the defenſive. Such was the ſtate of affairs when the two Scipios entered Greece in their way to Aſia. By their advice a truce was concluded with Ætolia, for the ſpace of ſix months. This was done that the Scipios might ſtrengthen themſelves with the forces of Galba. And having thus rendered themſelves more formidable, they made their attack upon Antiochus the Great, the event of which has been elſewhere related.

On the Scipios paſſing into Aſia, the Ætolians immediately attacked ſome of the neighbouring allies of Rome. But freſh forces arriving, they again made peace on the following terms: That the majeſty of the Roman people ſhould be revered throughout Ætolia. That they ſhould hinder all armies

inimical to Rome from paſſing through their territories. That they ſhould deem the enemies of Rome their enemies. And there were ſome other articles, the chief of which was the payment of a ſum of money, together with the delivering up the iſland of Cephalenia; for the performance of all which, 40 hoſtages were given by the Ætolians. It was at the ſame time fixed, that no Greek city ſhould make war upon another, without the permiſſion of the Romans. And in order to hear theſe, and other appeals, the Conſul Nobilior, who negotiated this buſineſs for Rome, took up his reſidence in the iſland of Cephalenia.

In ſome diſputes which ſoon after aroſe between Sparta and the Achæan league, Nobilior however declared he would not interfere. On this refuſal both had recourſe to arms. Under the conduct of Philopœmen the latter proved ſucceſsful, and Sparta, though lately ſurrounded by a wall, ſurrendered at diſcretion. Its fortifications were then

deſtroyed—the laws of Lycurgus aboliſhed—and the ſame regulations in uſe amongſt the Achæans were eſtabliſhed. But on the Lacedæmonians repreſenting their misfortunes at Rome, that republic interfered, and they were immediately reinſtated in all their former rights and privileges.

The next diſturbance in Greece was occaſioned by Dinocrates, a popular leader of the Meſſenians. At his inſtigation they withdrew from the Achæan league; and Philopœmen, who was for the eighth time Prætor, was ſent to chaſtiſe them. In this attempt he was defeated and taken priſoner; and Dinocrates, who had long hated him, ordered that he ſhould be diſpatched by poiſon. When it was brought to Philopœmen, he enquired as to the reſt of the priſoners, and finding they were ſafe, he expreſſed the greateſt ſatisfaction, at the ſame time taking off the draught with the utmoſt compoſure. His virtues, courage, and abilities, rendered him juſtly dear to the Achæans; and he is

conſidered as the laſt who was celebrated amongſt the Grecians.

The Meſſenians ſoon experienced a reverſe of fortune. On their being ſubdued, a number of them were ſacrificed at a magnificent tomb which was erected to Philopœmen. As for Dinocrates, he choſe rather to put himſelf to death, than abide the conſequences of being taken, and thus terminated this Meſſenian war.

On ſome diſturbances between Philip and his neighbours, Rome was appealed to. They immediately ſent three of their citizens to enquire into the merits of the queſtion; and Philip being found in the wrong, was forced to ſubmit to their deciſion. But though he did not dare to diſobey their directions, he felt the utmoſt reſentment at ſuch a humiliating trial. This ſoon ſhewed itſelf in freſh offences; on which he was obliged to ſend his ſon Demetrius, who had formerly been a hoſtage to Rome, to make his peace with that republic. This, with difficulty, was ac-

compliſhed; the ſenate at the ſame time adding, that he entirely owed their forgiveneſs to the affection they entertained for Demetrius.

Philip had an illegitimate ſon, whoſe name was Perſes, or Perſeus, equally remarkable for his vices and duplicity. Finding the rooted hatred which his father entertained againſt the Romans, he conſtantly abuſed that nation. Demetrius, on the contrary, ſpoke highly in their favour, and always endeavoured to keep Philip from offending them. From thence, Perſeus artfully poiſoned his father's mind againſt his brother; till at length, by falſe evidence, he fully perſuaded Philip, that Demetrius, by the aid of Rome, meant to dethrone him. In this belief, Demetrius was put to death by order of his father. The falſe teſtimony which had been given, however, ſoon after came to light, and the unhappy monarch fell a victim to his ſorrows.

On the diſcovery of his villany, Perſeus inſtantly fled from his father's reſentment. But though Philip deſigned the crown for

Antigonus, a near relation, Perſeus, on his father's diſſolution, made good his pretenſions, at the ſame time putting his competitor to death. He then reſolved on war with Rome; and having made ſome alliances in Aſia, and likewiſe with the iſland of Rhodes, he declared himſelf protector of the liberties of Greece. Of theſe proceedings the Romans were very early informed by Eumenes, king of Pergamus, who was their ally. In return, Perſeus had attempted to get that monarch aſſaſſinated; which being reported to the Roman ſenate, war was inſtantly declared againſt the Macedonians.

Perſeus being aided by Epirus, by Gentius, king of the Illyrians, and by ſome other ſtates, kept his ground for two or three years, till the Conſul, Paulus Æmilius, came with ſuch a force as could not be withſtood. Perſeus and his allies were totally overthrown, and he himſelf tranſmitted to Rome, where he was put to death. Macedon was then divided into four provinces, and annual magiſtrates were appointed to each, who were to

adminiſter the laws before in uſe amongſt the Macedonians. The tribute to which their kings had been entitled was to go to Rome. In order to prevent any formidable union againſt the intereſts of that republic, little or no intercourſe was ſuffered between the provinces. And as a further ſafeguard, all the principal families were tranſmitted to Italy. Epirus was likewiſe chaſtiſed, and Illyria became a tributary kingdom.

Having thus made a permanent ſettlement in this quarter, the Romans never loſt ſight of the reſt of Greece, till it likewiſe became their tributary. Ten commiſſioners were diſpatched to aſſiſt Æmilius in adjuſting all diſputes that might ariſe. But their ſecret inſtructions were to increaſe the Roman influence by every means in their power. This they did with ſo little regard to juſtice, that all thoſe who were inimical to the ambitious views of their republic, were every where falſely accuſed and executed. Of all the ſtates, the Achæans were fondeſt of liberty, and therefore were moſt obnoxious; in ſo

much, that all its leading families would have been deſtroyed by theſe infamous commiſſioners, had not an appeal been made to the Roman ſenate. That body anſwered the purpoſe, by a leſs cruel mode, for 1000 of the Achæans were ordered to Rome, under pretence of taking their trial. This they never could obtain, being, on the contrary, diſperſed throughout Italy; and Greece was thereby left without a ſingle leader.

For ſome years nothing memorable happened in this part of the globe, except Dalmatia being added to the Roman conqueſts. At length Andriſcus, an impoſtor, who pretended to be the ſon of Perſeus, laid claim to Macedon. The people, tired of the Roman yoke, gladly received him; and without any minute enquiry as to his birth, they every where acknowledged his authority. Scipio Naſica was thereupon diſpatched againſt him, and he drove Andriſcus from moſt of his new acquired dominions. But thoſe who ſucceeded Naſica acting weakly, Andriſcus recovered Macedon, and likewiſe added Theſſaly to

his territories. He was however totally unworthy of this good fortune: and he not only gave himſelf up to the moſt vicious exceſſes, but was guilty of many acts of tyranny.

The Prætor Q. Cæcilius Metelius, was now diſpatched againſt Andriſcus; by whoſe judicious conduct, that impoſtor was defeated, and tranſmitted to Rome. Alexander, another pretended ſon of Perſeus, then put himſelf at the head of the Macedonians. On his being likewiſe unſucceſsful, and obliged to fly, Macedonia was forced to ſubmit. The Roman laws were introduced inſtead of thoſe which were formerly eſtabliſhed; and it, in every ſenſe, became a Roman province.

Seventeen years had elapſed ſince the 1000 Achæans were tranſmitted to Rome, and there being but few at this time remaining, they were permitted to return to their country. As might well be ſuppoſed, a great degree of reſentment accompanied them; and freſh commotions ſoon broke out in Pe-

loponneſus. Theſe are ſuppoſed to have been privately fomented by the Romans, that a fair pretence might ariſe for the total ſubjection of the Grecians. And at length, Metellus was ordered to make war on thoſe refractory ſtates. It ended in every place being taken, except the city of Corinth; which had the honour of making the laſt ſtand in Greece againſt the Roman arms. And on the Conſul Mummius arriving with freſh forces, its inveſtiture took place.

Diæus, who commanded the Corinthian garriſon, made ſome ſucceſsful ſallies, and at length hazarded a battle in the open field. In it he received a total overthrow, flying with the few that remained: and unwilling to ſurvive this calamity, he had himſelf and all his family, conſumed in a houſe to which they had retired. The few men whom Mummius found in Corinth, were put to the ſword, and the women and children were diſpoſed of as ſlaves. Its immenſe wealth, together with the moſt valuable productions of the Grecian ſculptors and pain-

ters, were then ſhipped for Italy. And the city itſelf being deemed dangerous from its ſtrong ſituation, was conſumed to aſhes. Much gold and ſilver had been concealed by the beſieged, which melting on this occaſion, and mixing with the braſs, produced a compound metal, which afterwards got the name of Corinthian braſs; and was in high eſtimation. This event happened in the year 141, on which all Greece was formed into a Roman province. And from thenceforth it has never poſſeſſed the ſmalleſt ſhadow of its former power.

SIXTH LETTER.

THE Cretans, during the latter part of my preſent æra, were in alliance with Rome, and many of them ſerved in their armies, which is the only thing worth mentioning as to them. The iſland of Paros is remarkable for having marble tables prior to the firſt Punic war, on which were engraved a chro-

nological account of ſeveral ancient events. And theſe being diſcovered not a great while ago, were purchaſed by one of the Arundel family, and preſented to the Univerſity of Oxford.

Of the other iſlands, Rhodes and Sicily alone deſerve attention. On the death of Alexander the Great, Rhodes drove out the Macedonian garriſon, and regained its liberty. It then became a great maritime ſtate, far excelling all the other iſlands of the Archipelago. And it diſtinguiſhed itſelf by clearing the ſeas of pirates, with which they greatly abounded.

In the wars which broke out between the captains of Alexander, Rhodes at firſt preſerved the moſt perfect neutrality. But Antigonus conceiving they latterly favoured Ptolemy Lagus, ſent his ſon Demetrius Poliorcetes, to beſiege the city of Rhodes. This he did for one whole year, when fearing the approach of an Egyptian armament, he granted them peace, on condition that they ſhould join Antigonus againſt all his enemies,

except Ptolemy Lagus. On leaving Rhodes, Demetrius preſented them with all the engines he had employed to batter their walls. Theſe they ſold for 300 talents, which ſum was laid out in erecting their Coloſſus, juſtly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. It was a huge ſtatue of Apollo, made of braſs, each foot ſtanding on a rock, and eighty cubits in heighth. The two rocks on which it was placed, formed the entrance of the harbour, and veſſels in full ſail paſſed between its legs. But about the year 257, a great earthquake viſited this iſland, amongſt other things, throwing down its famous Coloſſus. On this they ſent ambaſſadors to the neighbouring ſtates, ſoliciting money to reſtore it; in which they were extremely ſucceſsful. A Delphic Oracle, however, forbade its re-erection; and the ſum thus obtained, was expended on their fleet and other material improvements.

In the war between Rome and Antiochus the Great, they became the allies of the former, and were rewarded with ſeveral petty

ſtates of Aſia-Minor. But the Rhodians treated thoſe tributaries with ſo much ſeverity, that Rome interfered. This highly offended the Rhodians, and in the ſubſequent war between Rome and Perſeus, king of Macedon; they ſo evidently leaned to the latter, that they with great difficulty averted an attack on themſelves. And they could prevent it by no other means than a reſignation of thoſe ſtates in Aſia-Minor, which they had before obtained as a reward for their aid and fidelity.

In Sicily nothing material happened for a few years after the death of Timoleon; till at length Agathocles, a man of low birth, who by infamous means, had acquired a great degree of wealth, was elected general of the Syracuſean forces. He was no ſooner in full poſſeſſion of this command, than he repreſented to the troops the inſolence of the Senate. It was compoſed of 600 of the wealthieſt citizens. And when he at length propoſed, that they and their families ſhould be cut off, and their poſſeſſions be divided

amongſt the army, it was received with general approbation.

After this bloody ſcheme was carried into execution, Agathocles found no difficulty in raiſing himſelf to the ſovereignty. He then greatly increaſed his forces, till in a very ſhort time every city of Sicily, except thoſe which belonged to the Carthaginians, were compelled to acknowledge his ſuperiority.

Carthage ſoon found herſelf obliged to oppoſe the progreſs of this ſucceſsful tyrant. And on her ſending a very great armament into Sicily, he was forced to retire within the walls of Syracuſe. Here he was cloſely beſieged, when one of the moſt daring actions ever undertaken, ſtruck his imagination. He reſolved to make a ſudden and unexpected attack on Carthage itſelf. And embarking the greateſt part of his troops, he left the defence of his own capital to a brother. After a partial engagement with the Carthaginian fleet, he reached the coaſt of Africa; where he no ſooner landed his men, than he deſtroyed his ſhips, thereby depriving them

of every hope but what aroſe from victory.

Carthage was totally unprepared for ſuch an unexpected enemy. Her danger was alſo increaſed by civil diſſentions, a citizen of the name of Bomilcar, attempting the ſovereignty. He was however put to death, and though they were not able to take the field, they then made the neceſſary preparations for the defence of their capital.

Several neighbouring princes, who were jealous of the extended power of Carthage, had joined Agathocles: and their united force threatened no leſs than the total deſtruction of the Carthaginian republic. The affairs of Sicily, however, required the return of Agathocles, who left the command to his ſon Archathagus. But he by no means poſſeſſed the military talents of his father; and he miſmanaged matters ſo groſsly, that when Agathocles got back to Africa, the gaining of a battle was the only chance he had for ſucceſs. Being defeated in an engagement that followed, all the Africans immediately abandoned his cauſe. And having no fleet to carry back his own troops, the caſe be-

came deſperate. He therefore attempted to ſave himſelf and his youngeſt ſon, by privately withdrawing. This he was only able to effect as to himſelf. And the army were ſo irritated at the king for abandoning them, they they ſlew both his ſons. After which they made terms for themſelves, obtaining 300 talents from the Carthaginians, beſides a ſettlement in their Sicilian territories.

The only good conſequence of this African expedition, was raiſing the ſiege of Syracuſe, for the beſiegers were early recalled to the defence of their native country. Agathocles therefore obtained the undiſturbed poſſeſſion of his territories. He alſo revenged the murder of his ſons, by deſtroying all ſuch as were relations to the army that had done it. This and other acts of cruelty, raiſed ſome commotions at Syracuſe. But having concluded a peace with Carthage, he eaſily ſuppreſſed them. And towards the end of his days, he made ſome unſucceſsful deſcents on the Æolian iſles, and on the adjacent parts of Italy.

To his other crimes, this monſter added that of unnatural luſt. In the end, it however coſt him his life; for Mænon, a young man whom he had abuſed, gave him a tooth pick ſo ſubtily poiſoned, that it ſpread from his gums through all his frame, occaſioning ſuch exquiſite pain, that he had himſelf placed on his funeral pile, whilſt yet living, and it being ſet fire to, he was ſpeedily conſumed to aſhes.

During the confuſion occaſioned by his death, a body of troops from Campania, called Mamertini, who were in his ſervice, ſurpriſed the city of Meſſana. They then put all the men to death, marrying their widows. And after poſſeſſing themſelves of every thing belonging to Meſſana, they conſiderably added to its territories.

Two or three had attempted the regal power at Syracuſe, without being able to ſucceed. Whilſt that city was thus diſtracted by its diſſentions, the Carthaginians poſſeſſed themſelves of moſt of the iſland; and at length they appeared with a formidable army be-

fore the walls of Syracuſe itſelf. This put an end to their civil broils, and Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, being then in Italy, was immediately applied to for ſuccour. Such a requeſt was extremely agreeable to the ambitious views of that monarch. And he inſtantly ſet out with a force that not only relieved the beſieged city, but nearly expelled the Carthaginians from all their ſettlements in Sicily.

Pyrrhus had been married to a daughter of Agathocles, by whom he had a ſon; and this ſon he now proclaimed King of Syracuſe. He then prepared to ſail for Africa, that Carthage ſhould be compelled to reſign every pretenſion to Sicily. But the conduct of Pyrrhus had effectually eſtranged the affections of the Syracuſeans. He had put to death numbers who he feared would thwart his deſigns. He had alſo beſtowed every place of conſequence on his followers, who plundered the lower orders of the people with impunity. Thus irritated, a general revolt took place. All the Sicilian part

of Pyrrhus's army abandoned him; and having loſt this fertile iſland by his own miſconduct, inſtead of embarking againſt Carthage, he was happy in ſecuring a retreat to Italy.

The Syracuſeans having reſtored a free government, elected Hiero, who was a deſcendant of Gelon, to their prætorſhip. He obliged the Mamertini, who had become extremely troubleſome, to retire within their walls. By this and other ſervices, Hiero ingratiated himſelf ſo much with the Syracuſeans, that they at length ſubmitted to his being their King. And having made peace with the Carthaginians, he joined his forces with theirs, inveſting the city of Meſſana. Before this, Carthage had ſent a garriſon to the Citadel of that place, at the deſire of the Mamertini. But having become jealous of their fortreſs being in the hands of others, they attempted to expel the garriſon. This they were not able to accompliſh, and Meſſana was now attacked by order of Carthage,

that thoſe who remained in the Citadel might obtain relief.

With enemies thus within and without, the Mamertini ſent to implore the protection of Rome. All Italy being at this time ſubjected by that aſpiring republic, they wiſhed for nothing more ardently than a reaſonable cauſe to enter Sicily. They therefore immediately ordered ſuccours to the city of Meſſana; which by their aid was relieved. And the Romans then making a ſeparate peace with Hiero, prepared for other conteſts with the Carthaginians.

Carthage loudly complained of this conduct, which they alledged was directly contrary to treaty. On the other hand, Rome retorted, that the Carthaginians had been the firſt aggreſſors, by aiding the city of Tarentum in Italy. But the truth was, that the commercial views of the firſt, and the ambitious ones of the latter, were now become incompatible, and war was the inevitable conſequence. Sicily for the preſent, became the chief ſeat of this contention, which was

carried on with various ſucceſs. And at length the city of Lilybæum, the moſt conſiderable of all the Carthaginian ſettlements in that iſland, was beſieged by the Romans.

In the beginning of this firſt Punic war, the Romans had made ſome ſucceſsful exertions on the ocean. But afterwards ſuffering ſeverely on that element, they had directed all their exertions to their land forces. Lilybæum however being open to the ſea, received ſuch ſupplies as enabled it for years to bid its enemies defiance. This at length convinced the Romans, that the Carthaginians could never be driven from Sicily, whilſt they could pour in forces at their diſcretion. They therefore reſolved on a prodigious effort to gain the ſuperiority in the Mediterranean. It ſucceeded, and in the year 235, Carthage was forced to ſurrender all her Sicilian poſſeſſions to the Roman arms.

Hiero having continued firm to his alliance with Rome, during the whole of this conteſt, Syracuſe, with its territories, remained

unmoleſted. When the ſecond Punic war broke out, Hiero obſerved the ſame conduct: and after a happy reign of 54 years, he died at the age of 90, greatly lamented both by his allies and his own particular ſubjects.

Being almoſt always at peace, Hiero had acquired a great degree of wealth, beſides having very highly ſtrengthened and ornamented Syracuſe. He alſo erected great arſenals, and laid up immenſe military ſtores, that he might be prepared for a reverſe of fortune. And a prodigious number of ſhips were employed by him in exporting the crops, with which his territories abounded. But his reign is not more famous for any thing than giving birth to Archimedes, his own near relation. This man's genius for mathematics and the mechanic powers, having very early diſplayed itſelf, it was moſt kindly foſtered in the court of Syracuſe. He was employed on various buildings and engines. A vaſt ſhip was made under his inſpection, which was preſented to Ptolemy Philadelphus, King of Egypt. In it were gardens, containing all

the curious plants of Sicily, beſides having every convenience of a palace. Archimedes was the firſt who found out the proportions between a cylinder and ſphere. A glaſs ſphere, delineating the motions of the heavenly bodies, was alſo invented by him. An organ which played ſeveral tunes, by means of water, was likewiſe one of his pieces of mechaniſm. Nay, to ſuch a height had he brought the mechanic powers, that he was able to bring a ſhip fully appointed, from dry land into the ſea, by means of them. And when he ſaid that he could move the earth, had he a place to fix his engines on, he can ſcarcely be ſuppoſed to have exaggerated.

Hieronymo, the grandſon of Hiero, ſucceeded to the crown. Being a minor, fifteen guardians were appointed by his grandfather. But by the advice of Andranadorus, who had married his aunt, Hieronymo took the government upon himſelf. Contrary to the example of Hiero, he now declared for Carthage, that ſtate ſeeking to regain what it

had loſt in Sicily. But his vices ſoon occaſioned a conſpiracy, which coſt him his life. The regal dignity was then aboliſhed, and Andranadorus, who attempted to reſtore it in himſelf, together with all the royal family, were exterminated. On this change in the government, there were ſeveral citizens who wiſely ſought to renew the alliance with Rome. The intrigues of Carthage, however, prevailed in the councils of Syracuſe.

The Roman forces in Sicily being greatly increaſed by the arrival of the Conſul Marcellus, Syracuſe itſelf was now compleatly inveſted. Its walls were 22 miles in extent, and were fortified with the greateſt circumſpection. Archimedes alſo placed the engines conſtructed by his orders, in ſuch judicious directions, that every attempt by ſea or land was fruſtrated. Theſe engines, which were concealed, threw darts, ſtones, and a multitude of offenſive things. And the Romans ſuffered ſo much, and ſo unexpectedly, as to be greatly terrified in all thoſe modes of attack to which they had not been accuſtomed.

To remedy this, Marcellus contrived a great building erected on eight united gallies, which was to be brought close to the walls by sea, and to overtop them. Archimedes had, however, a new engine prepared, and it no sooner approached, than it was demolished by the immense stones which fell upon it. The common vessels which accompanied it, at the same time found grappling irons descend into them, which raised the ships into the air, and by letting them suddenly fall, dashed them to pieces. In short, the skill of Archimedes, during this siege, is almost incredible. And perhaps the mechanic powers were never, either before or since, called into more extraordinary exertions.

The Carthaginians did not tamely see the fall of Syracuse. But though they sent a very powerful armament to its relief, its efforts proved ineffectual. When Syracuse was taken, Marcellus gave it up to be plundered, at the same time charging his soldiers not to take the life of any citizen. That injunction

was not however ſtrictly obſerved, and amongſt others, the celebrated Archimedes periſhed. This great man was ſo much engaged in a problem, that the firſt information he had of the city being taken, was the entrance of a Roman ſoldier: and ſo intent was he on what employed him, that he very coolly bade the ſoldier wait till he had finiſhed it. Struck with ſo odd a behaviour, the Roman reſolved to conduct him to Marcellus. But Archimedes lifting a ſmall box that contained mathematical inſtruments, to carry along with him, the ſoldier conceiving it to contain ſomething of great value, diſpatched the owner, that it might be his without moleſtation. When his death was made known to Marcellus, he expreſſed great concern; and having paid him all poſſible funeral honours, he erected a ſtately monument to his memory.

All the material ornaments of Syracuſe were ſhipped to Rome; and in a few years, every other place in this iſland ſubmitted to

her arms; Sicily from thenceforth becoming a Roman province.

SEVENTH LETTER.

THERE is nothing particular as to Carthage, prior to the year 259, that has not fallen in with the Sicilian hiſtory. At that period her firſt conteſt with Rome commenced, and for ſome time the coaſts of Italy were plundered with impunity. This was owing to the total inattention hitherto paid by the Romans to naval affairs. They, however, now ſaw the abſolute neceſſity of a fleet, and the utmoſt exertions were made for its equipment. Scipio, one of the Conſuls, then ſailed with the firſt ſeventeen that had been got ready, 103 more being immediately to follow him. But he was ſurpriſed and taken by Hannibal, the Carthaginian Admiral, before the latter force could arrive to his aid.

Hannibal did not long enjoy this trivial ſucceſs, for his own fleet which conſiſted of only 50 ſhips, was moſtly taken or deſtroyed by the remaining veſſels of the Romans. Hannibal, however, himſelf eſcaped, and ſoon advanced with a more powerful armament. But Decilius, the Roman Conſul, who now commanded, was well prepared for his reception. He knew the Carthaginians were expert ſeamen; whereas his crews were nearly ignorant of all manœuvres on that element. To remedy this, he contrived a ſort of bridge to each of his veſſels, which would let down and faſten on any ſhip it cloſed with. And giving orders that it ſhould be put in practice in the next engagement, he knew the crews would then combat nearly as if on ſhore. This ſucceeded to his wiſhes, for the Carthaginians, ſurpriſed by ſo unexpected a mode of attack, were totally defeated. Thirteen of their ſhips were ſunk, and eighty captured. The news of this naval victory was received at Rome with peculiar rejoicings, being the firſt in their annals.

And after Decilius had received his triumph, a pillar was erected to record it.

This event was followed by the reduction of Corſica, and a great part of Sardinia, thoſe iſlands having been ſubjected by the Carthaginians. And Hannibal, at the head of another fleet, being again defeated, was crucified on his return to Carthage. Further ſucceſſes, both by ſea and land, at length induced the Romans to transfer the ſeat of war to Africa itſelf. For this invaſion 330 gallies were equipped, with 300 rowers and 120 ſoldiers to each, commanded by the Conſuls L. Manlius Vulſo, and Marcus Attilius Regulus. To oppoſe them, 360 veſſels were diſpatched from Carthage. The two armaments met off Sicily, where a deſperate engagement took place; but victory at length declared for Rome. Thirty of the Carthaginian ſhips were ſunk, and 63 were taken. And the Conſuls having added to their original force by draughts from Sicily, made good their diſembarkation on the coaſt of Africa.

A very conſiderable country almoſt immediately yielded to their arms. Vulſo then returned to Rome, with the priſoners and ſpoils already taken, leaving Regulus to carry on the war. Carthage itſelf was at length inveſted, and it reſolved on the moſt obſtinate defence, rather than yield to the humiliating terms propoſed by the Romans.

A body of Grecian mercenaries, under the command of one Xantippus, at this critical period, threw themſelves into Carthage. Their leader ſoon proved himſelf a man of uncommon abilities, and the Carthaginians thought it adviſeable to put themſelves entirely under his direction. He began with training them to the Grecian art of war. And having accompliſhed this, he marched out of the city with 12,000 foot, 4000 horſe, and 100 elephants. To encounter them, Regulus had 32,500 men, but no elephants. The ſuperior ſkill of Xantippus, added to the advantage derived from thoſe monſtrous animals, however prevailed. The Romans were totally overthrown, 30,000 of them

falling in battle. Regulus, with 500 more, were made priſoners; and the ſmall remnant of his forces took ſhelter in the city of Clupea.

The Carthaginians owed not only this victory, but even their exiſtence as a people, to Xantippus. Yet ſuch was their baſeneſs, that the only thing Hiſtorians differ in, as to their ingratitude, is, whether they put him to death, or ſent him away unrewarded. The Carthaginians had been ſo long uſed to the benefits of commerce, and the unbounded deſire of money, that every thing gave way to theſe propenſities. The ſame obſervation will hold as to every nation in a ſimilar ſituation. And I am rather inclined to think, that the depravities ariſing from a great extenſion of trade, more than outweigh its utility.

When the account of Regulus's defeat arrived at Rome, Fulvius and Æmilius, the then Conſuls, were ſent with 350 ſail, to carry off the remnant of his army. They were met by a Carthaginian fleet, which they defeated, ſinking 104 ſhips, beſides

taking 30, and 15,000 Carthaginians periſhed on this occaſion. The Conſuls then accompliſhed the chief object of their voyage, after which they ſet ſail for Sicily. But a dreadful ſtorm deſtroyed all but 80 of their ſhips, moſt of the crews being alſo loſt, and this far more than counterbalanced their late ſucceſs againſt the enemy.

A freſh fleet being equipped, was ſent to aſſiſt in the conqueſt of the Carthaginian ſettlements in Sicily. After performing ſome ſervices in that quarter, it alſo ravaged the coaſts of Africa. On their return another ſtorm, however, overtaking them, 160 of their gallies were deſtroyed; and the Romans now conceiving, that the gods warred againſt them on that element, made a decree, that no more than fifty ſail ſhould from thenceforth be employed.

The Carthaginians were at this time very anxious for peace. They therefore ſent ambaſſadors to Rome, and with them their priſoner Regulus, binding him by an oath, that if peace was not concluded, he ſhould re-

turn. Thus they thought that all his influence would be in their favour. But, on the contrary, he urged Rome to continue the war; pointing out the exhauſted ſtate of Carthage, and the certainty of his own country proving ſucceſsful. Convinced by his arguments, the ſenate rejected the overtures which were made to them. They, however, did all in their power to prevent the loſs of Regulus. The Pontifex Maximus declared, the breach of his oath, thus circumſtanced, would be forgiven by the gods. Such arguments had no effect on the ſteady virtue of this noble Roman. He therefore took a ſolemn farewell of his friends—his children—his wife—and his country. And as he had ſworn, he returned with the ambaſſadors. Incapable of feeling the reſpect due to ſuch a conduct, they put him to a death of torture; on which the Roman ſenate, in revenge, ſent a number of Carthaginian priſoners of rank to Marcia, the wife of Regulus, to diſpoſe of as ſhe thought proper. But on hearing ſhe had tormented ſeveral of

them to death, they ſaved the remainder; at the ſame time regretting, that they had ſo far imitated the infamous example of Carthage.

The Romans did not long adhere to their decree of employing only fifty ſhips, and a conſiderable fleet was ſent to aſſiſt in the reduction of the Carthaginian parts of Sicily. They had at firſt very great ſucceſs, till P. Claudius Pulcher, by his miſconduct changed the face of affairs. His fleet was defeated by a very inferior one, under the command of Adherbal, a Carthaginian Admiral. Eight thouſand men periſhed, 20,000 were made priſoners, and 90 ſhips were loſt by the Romans. The determination of abandoning ſea expeditions was, therefore, again adopted. Private perſons were, however, allowed to fit out veſſels againſt the enemy for their own emolument. And being very ſucceſsful, the maritime ſpirit was revived amongſt the Romans.

After various attempts by land, the reduction of the maritime towns, in the Car-

thaginian ſettlements, was found abſolutely impracticable, without a ſuperiority by ſea. Rome therefore in every way exerted herſelf. Not only the public funds, but private ſubſcriptions were applied to this object. Their veſſels were built on a better conſtruction, either to attack an enemy or repel the dangers of the ſeas. And, at length, the moſt formidable fleet they had ever poſſeſſed ſet ſail for Sicily. It came up with, and defeated the Carthaginians under the command of Hanno, 50 ſhips being ſunk and 70 taken; and beſides the vaſt number of Carthaginians who periſhed, 10,000 of them were made priſoners in this deciſive action.

Peace was the immediate conſequence; Rome, in fact, dictating the terms. All the Carthaginian territories in Sicily were ceded to that conquering republic. Carthage was no more to make war on them, nor on their faithful ally Hiero, king of Syracuſe. All the Romans who were priſoners were to be ſet at liberty without ranſom, whilſt, on the other hand, the Carthaginians were to pur-

chaſe the freedom of their people who had been captured. And, finally, Carthage was to pay down 1000 talents of ſilver, beſides 2,200 more, in the courſe of ten years, by equal annual payments. Such was the concluſion of the firſt Punic war, which laſted 24 years, and was ended in the year 235 before the Chriſtian Æra.

The Carthaginians having been long a commercial ſtate, had plenty of ſeamen, whilſt her land forces were almoſt entirely mercenaries; 20,000 of that deſcription were now tranſported from Sicily to Africa, in conſequence of the late treaty with the Romans. Some diſputes then aroſe, touching the recompenſe to which they were entitled. And the troops perceiving their own importance, at length openly revolted, making themſelves maſters of Tunes, and ſeveral cities in its neighbourhood.

Spendias and Mathos were the leaders of theſe mercenaries, and a number of African princes eagerly joined in the humiliation of Carthage. The Carthaginians, under Hanno,

made ſome efforts to ſtop the progreſs of this formidable conſpiracy. But they beat them back, and ſeizing the Iſthmus that joins Carthage to the Continent, that city was threatened with deſtruction.

To add to its calamities, two parties diſtracted it; the one headed by Hanno, the other by Hamilcar-Barcas. The latter at length prevailed, and by his courage and good conduct, drove the enemy from the Iſthmus; once more opening a communication with the Continent.

For ſome time the war was carried on with various ſucceſs, both ſides practiſing the greateſt cruelties; till at length Hamilcar's ſuperior addreſs got the great body of the revolters, and their allies, into a dreadful ſituation. If they remained there, they muſt in a ſhort time periſh for want; nor could they leave it without an engagement, in which they were ſure of being defeated. Thus circumſtanced, when proviſions became extremely ſcarce, the ſoldiers began to mutiny. At length they inſiſted, that Spen-

dius, with two other of their chief men, ſhould go as ambaſſadors to ſue for terms. Theſe were granted by Hamilcar, on condition that ten of the principals ſhould be delivered up, and the reſt to lay down their arms. He then ſeized the three ambaſſadors, as part of thoſe to be ſurrendered. But their troops, not fully underſtanding theſe terms, flew to arms; and being thus deprived of their beſt generals, they were totally overthrown, 40,000 of them falling in this deciſive victory.

Mathos, who was in another quarter, on receiving this news, ſhut himſelf up in Utica, with the remnant of their forces. Here he was quickly inveſted by Hamilcar, who crucified Spendius and the other two generals whom he had ſeized, in view of the Utican garriſon. In a ſucceſsful ſally, Mathos afterwards made Hannibal, the ſecond in command, his priſoner, who, together with thirty other Carthaginian officers, were put to death, by way of retaliation. But theſe cruelties did not expedite the ſucceſs of

either, though Hamilcar thought proper to relinquiſh the ſiege of Utica.

Hanno and Hamilcar having, at this time, effected a reconciliation, the Carthaginian force became more united and powerful; and though Mathos gave them ſome further trouble, he was in the end defeated and put to death; on which the Carthaginians fully recovered all their African territories.

The Numidians were next chaſtiſed, for having aided the mercenaries; after which Hamilcar paſſed into Spain. The Carthaginians had long had very conſiderable ſettlements in that country, but were conſtantly engaged in one war or other with its native inhabitants. For nine years Hamilcar was engaged there with conſiderable ſucceſs; and on his falling in battle, the command devolved on Aſdrubal, his ſon in law.

Though Sardinia and Corſica had not been ſpecified in the late peace with Rome, the Romans thought proper to attack them. And Carthage, though ſhe underhand ſtirred up the inhabitants of thoſe iſlands, did

not dare to give them open ſuccour. The Romans likewiſe interfered in Spain, commanding Aſdrubal not to exceed certain boundaries, which they preſcribed to him. To this he was forced to yield obedience, though he ſubdued all within the line in which he was allowed to act. By his engaging manners he then reconciled the Spaniſh princes to the yoke. He built ſeveral cities, and particularly New Carthage, or Carthagena. But at the end of eight years, Aſdrubal was aſſaſſinated by a Spaniard, who took this mode of revenging the death of a prince whom he had ſerved.

During the laſt three years, Hannibal, the ſon of Hamilcar, had ſerved under Aſdrubal, his brother in law; in which ſtation he diſplayed ſo many great and engaging talents, as to become the idol of the army. They therefore, on this vacancy in the command, raiſed him to that high appointment, though only 26 years old; and their election was confirmed by the Carthaginian ſenate. Hannibal, when a mere child, had been ſworn

by his father, on the altars of their Gods, never to be the friend of Rome. And the impreſſion thereby made was ſo great, that he took all poſſible occaſions of ſhewing his enmity to that republic. The very firſt act he did, was to paſs the barrier it had preſcribed, by laying ſiege to the city of Saguntum. This brought ambaſſadors from Rome. But he bade them paſs on to Carthage; and at the ſame time preſſing the ſiege, the inhabitants ſet fire to the city and periſhed in the flames.

Hannibal's party being uppermoſt at home, the ambaſſadors met with ſuch a reception, that war on the part of Rome was inſtantly declared. This happened in the year 214, and Carthage began with ravaging the coaſts of Italy. The Romans, together with Hiero, King of Syracuſe, however prevented any material ſucceſs ariſing from ſuch excurſions. But Rome was to be rouſed to her utmoſt exertions, by an attack that came from a very unexpected quarter.

Hannibal appointed his brother Aſdrubal

to command in Spain; and having got a ſufficient aid from Carthage, he determined to puſh the war into Italy. He knew that the Ciſalpine Gauls, though lately formed into a Roman province, were ripe for a revolt; and his emiſſaries were already paving the way for his approach.

Rome was not blind to his deſigns, and the Conſul, Cornelius Scipio, entered the Rhone with a conſiderable armament. It was his intention to prevent Hannibal's croſſing that river. The Carthaginian however got over, without allowing Scipio to bring him to a deciſive action. And after overcoming ſome Gauls who oppoſed his march, he reſolved to enter Italy by paſſing the Alps, a road by which the Romans never once expected an invaſion of their country.

When we conſider that at this day, it is difficult for even a ſingle traveller to croſs theſe lofty mountains, we may form ſome conjecture of what Hannibal had to encounter. Beſides the difficulties ariſing from rocks, precipices, ſnow and ice, he had to

fight the barbarous tribes that inhabited them. And as he could not bring them to any regular engagement, many of his people were deſtroyed. After nine days of aſtoniſhing perſeverance, he at length obtained their ſummit. There he refreſhed the troops for two days, at the ſame time encouraging them, by the view they had of the fertile plains of Italy; and alſo with their vicinity to the Ciſalpine Gauls, who had already entered into the conteſt with Rome. The deſcent was nearly as difficult as what was paſt. In one place a paſſage was cut through a ſolid rock for the troops and elephants. At length, after ſix days, they entered the country of the Inſubrians, who inſtantly joined them. And the only city which ſtood out for the Romans being taken, Hannibal took care to refreſh his troops after ſuch extraordinary labours.

Rome was now in the utmoſt conſternation, which is ſaid to have been encreaſed by ſome aſtoniſhing prodigies. Cornelius

Scipio was, however, ordered to march againſt him. And Sempronius was afterwards ſent to ſupport Scipio with a powerful reinforcement. But with the aid of the Gauliſh nations Hannibal was too much for both theſe Conſuls, for they loſt the whole of their forces except 10,000 men. The Carthaginians behaved with the utmoſt barbarity to all who fell into their hands. And there could hardly be a more ſavage war than that which Hannibal now waged in the very boſom of Italy.

Though it was winter, Hannibal reſolved, if poſſible, to paſs the Apennines, and take up his quarters in Hetruria. In the attempt he loſt a number of men, and ſeveral elephants, merely from the ſeverity of the ſeaſon; and after all, found that road impracticable. But he ſucceeded by another way, though he ſuffered conſiderably, particularly in his elephants; and he likewiſe loſt the ſight of one of his eyes, in conſequence of his own perſonal fatigues. The comfortable accommodation which he thereby obtained

for his troops, however, more than repaid him for all theſe difficulties.

Cneius Scipio had been left in Spain by the Conſul his brother. With the Romans under his command he at firſt was extremely ſucceſsful. Latterly, however, the Carthaginians had better fortune in that quarter. And their fleet was likewiſe able to capture the iſlands of Lipari and Vulcania, beſides a proſperous deſcent againſt the city of Vibo, in Italy.

C. Flaminius, one of the new Conſuls, obtained by lot the command of an army which was to watch the motions of Hannibal. His favour with the people had, however, raiſed him to a poſt he was totally unequal to. This was ſoon perceived by Hannibal, who drew him into an ambuſcade, where his whole army was either killed or taken priſoners. Four thouſand horſe coming to his aid were partakers of his fate. And Hannibal then ſet free all who were not actually Romans, declaring he came to re-

ſcue the Italian ſtates from that yoke which Rome had ſo univerſally impoſed. By this politic conduct, the ſecret wiſhes of all who had been ſubjected favoured the Carthaginians; whilſt a great addition was likewiſe made to thoſe who openly eſpouſed their cauſe.

In this critical ſituation Rome fortunately called Fabius Maximus to the Dictatorſhip. Deſcended from a Fabius that had before diſtinguiſhed himſelf, his name was of weight with his countrymen. His own perſonal courage and wiſdom were alſo in high eſtimation, and we ſhall find they were not overrated. Beſides electing a Dictator, the Sybilline oracles were conſulted in this dangerous criſis. The Decemviri, who kept them, now declared, that their misfortunes aroſe from the breach of a vow that one of their generals had formerly made. This was, that all the pigs, lambs, kids, and calves, brought forth from the firſt of March to the firſt of May, ſhould have been ſacrificed to Mars. And having, by order of the oracles, made

a new decree to this effect, Fabius put himſelf at the head of the Roman armies.

Hannibal was ſoon convinced of the judicious choice made by the Romans, for inſtead of riſking a battle, Fabius uniformly kept the heights neareſt to whatever line of march the Carthaginians undertook; from whence as occaſion ſerved, he cut off ſupplies and ſtraglers. Hannibal very clearly ſaw that this muſt end in his ruin. He therefore uſed every means to induce the Romans to give him battle. Cities were taken, and territories plundered under the very eye of the Dictator. And though the murmurs of his own army was added to all this, nothing could induce him to hazard an action, the loſs of which muſt have proved fatal to Rome.

Hannibal, in attempting to paſs into the fruitful region of Campania, at length got himſelf into a ſituation, that Fabius ſaw he could attack him with ſafety. He accordingly did ſo, gaining a very conſiderable advan-

tage, though the Carthaginians compleated their intentions. After which Fabius ſuffered them to ravage the countries they entered, in purſuance of his former reſolution.

But the diſcontent of his own army, at not being ſuffered to engage, had ariſen to a moſt alarming degree. This was encreaſed by the inſinuations of M. Minucius Rufus, General of the horſe. The integrity of Fabius was alſo ſuſpected by an artful manœuvre of Hannibal's; for he ſpared ſome lands that belonged to the Dictator, though all the grounds in their neighbourhood were ravaged by the Carthaginian forces. The conſequence of all theſe things was, a loſs of reputation at Rome, to which Fabius was now recalled, under ſome religious pretences. There he was refuſed a ſum of money which he had promiſed Hannibal as the ranſom of ſome priſoners; and he immediately ſold as much of his own property as diſcharged it. But his ill treatment did not ſtop here, for one of the Tribunes of the people openly accuſed him of treachery. To this Fabius only

replied, that his integrity could not be ſuſpected. This attack was in conſequence of Fabius ſaying, he would puniſh the General of horſe, for having engaged contrary to orders, though the action had been attended with ſome ſucceſs.—And the Tribune prevailed on the people to vote, that the General of horſe ſhould be thenceforth equal in power with Fabius, that he might not ſuffer for his diſobedience to their Dictator.

Having returned to the camp, Fabius, agreeable to the late decree, took the command of only half the forces. The reſt were led by Minucius, who very ſoon brought them into ſuch a ſituation, that Hannibal would have utterly deſtroyed them, but for the timely aid of Fabius. When the danger was over, Minucius fully atoned for his former conduct, declaring, that Fabius alone was worthy to command; and at the ſame time entreating, that he might be permitted to deſcend to his former ſtation. The Dictator immediately embraced him with the ut-

moſt tenderneſs, and with their reconciliation all murmurs were quieted throughout the forces. The defenſive line chalked out by Fabius was from this period moſt highly approved. And at the expiration of the ſix months, which was the period of his Dictatorſhip, the Conſuls followed his example.

By ſea the Romans had rather the beſt of it during this year. And in Spain Cneius Scipio, and Cornelius Scipio, gained ſeveral advantages; beſides a ſucceſsful deſcent which was made by the latter on the coaſt of Africa.

Terentius Varro, a Plebeian, and Æmelius Paulus, a Patrician, though each hated the order of the other, were now fooliſhly raiſed together to the Conſulate. Eight new legions, conſiſting each of 5000 foot and 300 horſe, were added to the former army; the Conſuls commanding day about by agreement. Hannibal having taken poſt near Cannæ, the Conſuls likewiſe encamped in its neighbourhood; and Varro, on a day that the command belonged to him, offered battle on the adjacent plains. This was inſtantly

ſeized on by Hannibal, who, after a long and bloody conteſt, proved compleatly victorious. Æmilius, who, with his laſt words, exculpated himſelf from this raſh action, was ſlain, together with many of the principal officers. Varro had very early fled with a few horſe to Venuſia, and the few Romans who eſcaped beſides them, took ſhelter in the city of Canuſium. Whilſt the camp, with all it contained, fell into the hands of the Carthaginians.

This was one of the moſt dreadful overthrows the Romans ever ſuſtained. So many knights fell in it, that their rings, an ornament peculiar to them, filled three buſhels. And had Hannibal immediately preſſed forward, as one of his officers, called Maherbal, adviſed him, it is more than probable, Rome itſelf would have ſubmitted to his arms.

When this melancholy news reached the capital, the conſternation was ſo great, that Fabius alone was maſter of himſelf. His

calm intrepidity, however, ſoon brought them to ſome degree of reaſon; and Marcellus, a very diſtinguiſhed Roman, was ordered to take the command of thoſe forces which had ſaved themſelves in Canuſium. M. Junius Pera was then made Dictator, and new levies were raiſed with the utmoſt expedition. Eight thouſand ſlaves, who turned out voluntarily, were embodied; and at this time arms were ſo ſcarce, that thoſe hung up for trophies were taken from the temples. As the public coffers were alſo empty, every private man produced his treaſure. And by theſe extraordinary exertions, Rome was once more enabled to take the field againſt her enemies.

The Roman garriſon in Capua was maſſacred by its inhabitants immediately after the battle of Cannæ; and Hannibal was then admitted as their deliverer. Several other places fell in ſucceſſion, but towards the cloſe of the campaign, Marcellus was able to check their enterpriſes; and Hannibal, with his chief officers, wintered at Capua.

When the ſenate of Carthage received information of the ſucceſs at Cannæ, they immediately ſent orders to Aſdrubal, who commanded in Spain, to inſtantly proceed for Italy. But the two Scipios met and defeated his army, 25,000 falling in battle, and 10,000 being taken priſoners, beſides their camp being captured. Many of the Spaniſh princes, on this, declared for the Romans; and all ſuccours expected by Hannibal from this quarter were effectually prevented.

After a moſt voluptuous winter, Hannibal again took the field, and ſeveral cities fell to his arms. Fabius, however, who was one of their Conſuls, and Marcellus, in an inferior capacity, by their exertions prevented any advantage of conſequence. In Spain there was nothing material, and Sardinia, which had revolted, was again reduced by the Romans.

Rome perhaps was ſeldom greater than at this moment. Philip, king of Macedon, and Hieronymus, the new king of Syracuſe, had declared for Carthage. Many of the

petty ſtates of Italy had revolted. Hannibal, with a powerful army, was almoſt at the gates of their capital. But it was the characteriſtic of this republic to riſe upon misfortune; and we ſhall ſee it equal to all its emergencies.

Two of her greateſt men were now raiſed to the Conſulate; Fabius Maximus and Claudius Marcellus. Six new legions were likewiſe added to twelve, that were before embodied; and a conſiderable fleet was fitted out by private ſubſcription. In the beginning of this campaign, the late Conſul Sempronius, in the quality of Proconſul, attacked a very large detachment from Hannibal's army. It conſiſted of 17,000 foot and 1,200 horſe, the moſt of whom were cut to pieces. This was chiefly owing to the armed Roman ſlaves, for Sempronius promiſed freedom to every one of them who brought him the head of an enemy. And ſuch was their exertions, that all thus purchaſed and obtained emancipation. The loſs ſuſtained by the Carthaginians, on this occaſion, was ſo

ſevere, that Hannibal was now obliged, in his turn, to act on the defenſive; and whilſt Marcellus watched his motions, Fabius was reducing ſeveral places of conſequence. The Roman Prætor Lævinus, was alſo able to prevent Philip, king of Macedon, from paſſing into Italy; whilſt the two Scipios were ſucceſsful in Spain. And the Roman fleet proving likewiſe victorious, they ravaged the coaſt of Africa.

Fabius, the ſon of Fabius Maximus, and Sempronius Gracchus, were the next Conſuls. The latter took ſeveral cities, whilſt the former, under the direction of his father, ſo carefully watched Hannibal, that he could do nothing of conſequence. And Capua, and the reſt of Campania, at this time returned to their allegiance to Rome. In Spain the Scipios made another ſucceſsful campaign; whilſt Marcellus inveſted Syracuſe, in Sicily. In Africa, the Carthaginians were involved in freſh difficulties; for Syphax, king of a part of Numidia, declared for Rome. Gala, king of the Maſſyli, a neighbouring ſtate,

however, at the ſame time, ſided with Carthage; and his ſon, Maſiniſſa, defeated Syphax in two different engagements.

The enſuing year, Hanno arrived in Italy with a conſiderable reinforcement for Hannibal. But Fulvius Flaccus, one of the new Conſuls, made himſelf maſter of his camp, and put them to great ſlaughter; ſo that Hannibal was ſtill on the defenſive, which was rendered more neceſſary, as the Roman legions were now twenty-three in number. In Spain, however, affairs were more favourable to Carthage, where they were aided by a body of Numidians under Maſiniſſa. The Romans were defeated in two ſeveral engagements, with great ſlaughter, and both the Scipios loſt their lives. C. Marcius was then elected to command by the remnant of the Roman army. He, in ſome degree, revenged the loſſes ſo lately ſuſtained, by ſurpriſing and ſetting fire to a Carthaginian camp; on which occaſion 30,000 of the forces of the latter loſt their lives.

The next year was only memorable for

Rome being nearly ſurpriſed, by a military ſtroke of Hannibal's; and for the reduction of Syracuſe.

In the following Conſulate, Marcellus, who was again raiſed to that dignity, got Hannibal into ſuch a ſituation, as to compel an engagement. It continued till night, but though victory declared for neither, the Carthaginians could not be brought to renew the battle; and he remained inactive during the reſt of the campaign. In Spain the command was now given to Cornelius Scipio, the ſon of that Cornelius who had ſo lately fallen. This young Roman united the Graces, both of perſon and manners, to an undaunted courage—a pure heart—and a clear underſtanding. He began, by ingratiating himſelf with the ſoldiers, and particularly the gallant Marcius. He alſo made himſelf pleaſing to the Spaniſh princes, who were in the intereſts of Rome. And C. Lælius, who commanded the fleet, and who was to co-operate, being his intimate friend, he had every proſpect of ſucceſs.

He began his career by a compleat inveſtiture of New Carthage, which almoſt inſtantly fell to his ſkill and valour. This was the moſt important of all the Carthaginian ſettlements in Spain. And he found in it not only vaſt wealth, but what he rendered of ſtill greater importance to his country; for a number of Spaniſh princes, who were kept as hoſtages, falling into his hands, he diſmiſſed them without ranſom; thereby ſecuring the affections of their reſpective countries. To the Spaniards of Carthagena he likewiſe allowed their laws and liberties. But an opportunity, at this time, offered of more fully evincing the generous and delicate ſentiments of the youthful Scipio. A beautiful Spaniſh princeſs had fallen into the hands of ſome of his ſoldiers, who thought ſhe would prove a moſt acceptable preſent to the general. On her being preſented, Scipio found ſhe was betrothed to Allucius, a Spaniſh prince. Inſtead of liſtening to his paſſions, he inſtantly became the protector of her honour. Her intended huſband was then ſent for, as were

her parents. And this hero had the tranſporting pleaſure of uniting theſe ſo lately wretched lovers; at the ſame time giving a ranſom, which had been brought for the princeſs, as an addition to her fortune. Allucius of courſe became the firm friend of Scipio. And ſtruck by ſuch an inſtance of virtue in this truly noble Roman, the Spaniards every where revolted from the Carthaginians.

Fulvius Flaccus and Fabius Maximus were the Conſuls for the next year; Marcellus having a detached command as Proconſul. The latter was beat in an action with Hannibal, but he ſoon gained a greater advantage than he had loſt over the Carthaginians. Fabius alſo got poſſeſſion of the city of Tarentum, which had long ſided with Hannibal. Thirty thouſand of its inhabitants were ſold into ſlavery, and 87,000 pounds weight of gold, with 300 talents of ſilver, were tranſmitted to Rome. And Scipio was alſo improving his advantages in the war carried on in Spain.

In the next campaign, Marcellus and his brother Conſul loſt their lives, by being ſurpriſed when reconnoitering. But their deaths were revenged by Claudius Nero, one of the next Conſuls, who forced Hannibal to action, ſlaying 8000 of his troops, and making 7000 of them his priſoners. In a ſecond battle which Hannibal could not avoid, he loſt 2000 more. After which he ſhut himſelf up in the city of Metapontus, there to wait the arrival of his brother Aſdrubal, whom he at this time expected.

Aſdrubal had paſſed the Alps before the late actions, and the Conſul M. Livius Salinator, was on his march to oppoſe him. Nero, however, likewiſe ſet out with a reinforcement, whilſt the reſt of his troops inveſted Metapontus. He arrived before the Carthaginians had engaged with Salinator, and a deciſive battle ſoon after took place in Umbria. Aſdrubal, with 56,000 of his forces, periſhed. And Hannibal, perceiving his brother's head, which Nero brought with him and expoſed at his camp before Me-

tapontus, now thought proper to retire into Brutium. In Spain Scipio was ſo ſucceſsful, as to leave very little in the hands of the Carthaginians. And the Roman fleet proved alſo victorious.

During the following year, Hannibal was obliged to be totally on the defenſive, and nothing material happened in Italy. But in Spain the Carthaginians were nearly expelled by the victorious Scipio; and Maſiniſſa was glad to evacuate that country. Scipio then paid a viſit to Syphax in Africa, confirming him in his alliance with Rome. And ſoon after his return to Spain, he compleated its reduction. After which, it was divided into two Roman provinces; a Prætor and a Quæſtor, reſiding in each, according to the regulations of the Roman republic.

When Scipio returned to Rome, he was moſt deſervedly honoured with the Conſulate. He then propoſed transferring the war to Africa, but was oppoſed by Fabius Maximus. This, Scipio openly alledged to proceed from envy; yet I think when we conſider the cau-

tious temper of Fabius, it is full as likely to have ariſen from his apprehenſions. All that Scipio however could do, was to obtain permiſſion to levy ſuch troops in Sicily as would voluntarily follow him, in an attack upon the Carthaginians. And whilſt he was thus exerting himſelf, the Roman fleet under the command of Lavinus, was ravaging the coaſts of Africa.

This Conſulate of Scipio's, was paſſed in Italy without any military exertions, the plague having got into both armies. But the next year Hannibal was defeated, after which he kept cloſe in hopes of ſuccour. His brother Mago effected a landing with 12,000 men, and was joined by numbers of the Gauls. He was not however able to accompliſh a junction with Hannibal, and nothing material happened in this quarter. Scipio having collected thirty ſhips and 7000 men, now made his intended deſcent near Carthage, where he was in a ſhort time joined by Maſiniſſa, his former enemy. And Sy-

phax, on the other hand, was now become the ally of Carthage.

A woman was the cauſe of this extraordinary change. Sophoniſba, the daughter of Aſdrubal, a celebrated Carthaginian General, had been promiſed to Maſiniſſa. But the latter being unſucceſsful in a war with Syphax, the lady, who was remarkable for her beauty, was given to Syphax, on the condition of his abandoning his connexion with Rome. It is true, Carthage got the territories taken from Maſiniſſa reſtored to him. This, however, could ill atone for the loſs he had ſuſtained. And he ſeized the firſt favourable moment of expreſſing his reſentment againſt the deſtroyers of his felicity.

The ſucceſs with which Scipio began his career in Africa, was ſo pleaſing to the Roman people, that they voted him very conſiderable ſupplies, with the rank of Proconſul, till that expedition ſhould be concluded. Scipio no ſooner received theſe reinforcements, than he ſurpriſed the camps of Aſdrubal and Syphax. This being by night,

they were ſet on fire; and though not more than 100 fell on the part of Scipio, 40,000 of the enemy were deſtroyed. Aſdrubal and Syphax, who had ſtill 30,000 men, being again defeated, the latter fled to Numidia, with the utmoſt precipitation. Maſiniſſa and Lælius the Roman, then purſued him with a conſiderable detachment, which at length made both him and his ſon their priſoners. Sophoniſba alſo fell into their hands, and ſhe now gave her hand to Maſiniſſa, though Syphax was ſtill living. But on her arrival at the Roman camp, Scipio inſiſted on her death. She had ſhewn an inveterate hatred to Rome, and he conceived Maſiniſſa would never continue faithful under ſuch an influence. However the love of country might juſtify Scipio in this determination, nothing can excuſe the acquieſcence of Maſſiniſſa. He, however, baſely allowed her to be poiſoned, thereby ſecuring his own kingdom, and likewiſe the territories of Syphax, which were added by the Romans to his dominions.

The great object of Carthage, in this dan-

gerous ſituation, was to get Hannibal and their forces from Italy. For this purpoſe, Scipio was amuſed with ſpecious overtures, and a ſhort truce was granted, to ſend the particulars to Rome. But Mago and Hannibal having effected their return, during this interval, the Carthaginians immediately renewed the war; and Scipio proving ſucceſsful againſt ſeveral of their cities, puniſhed this perfidy by the greateſt ſeverity.

The command of all the Carthaginian forces now devolved on Hannibal, who formed his camp near Zama. Scipio, who had received great reinforcements, likewiſe took poſt in that quarter. Theſe celebrated Generals had now an interview, but they could not agree on any terms of accommodation, and the next day was to decide the fate of Carthage. This battle of Zama was long and bloody, but the good fortune of Scipio at length preponderated. 20,000 fell on the part of Carthage; as many more were taken priſoners; and the remainder were totally unable to

make any further ſtruggle againſt the victorious Romans.

Hannibal, who was one of thoſe who eſcaped to Carthage, immediately declared that peace muſt be made on any terms. Thirty ſenators were accordingly diſpatched to know the will of Scipio, who ended the war on the following humiliating ſubmiſſions. That Spain, and all their iſlands, ſhould belong to Rome. That all their ſhips, except ten, were to be delivered up, nor were they again to poſſeſs more than that number. That all their elephants ſhould be ſurrendered, and none in future be trained to war. That they ſhould never again engage in any war without the conſent of Rome. That they ſhould reſtore all the lands they had taken at any time from Numidia, and enter into an alliance with Maſiniſſa. That they ſhould pay 10,000 talents in fifty years, by equal annual payments. That they ſhould deliver up all deſerters and priſoners. And for the performance of all theſe articles, 100 hoſtages were to be ſent to Rome. Such was

the end of the ſecond Punic war, in the year 196, by which the Roman power was exalted above all the other nations of the world.

Hannibal, notwithſtanding his misfortunes, was raiſed to the firſt office at Carthage. By his management, their deſperate affairs began to retrieve a little; but he offended ſome of the chief citizens, by raiſing the power of the people. In return, they repreſented him at Rome, as ſtirring up freſh commotions in the ſtate. The conſequence of which was, the flight of Hannibal, to prevent his being delivered to the Romans. And it was at this time he took ſhelter in the court of Antiochus the Great.

It was not long before there were diſputes with Maſiniſſa on the ſubject of boundaries. On this occaſion the Romans were applied to, but the Carthaginians ſuppoſing them partial in their conduct, went to war with Numidia. Freſh complaints however went to Rome, and Scipio Naſica was ſent to ſet-

tle theſe diſturbances. But the people of Carthage, beſides inſulting him, baniſhed 40 of their own ſenators, who ſought for peace with Maſiniſſa. And by this infatuated conduct they drew upon themſelves the third Punic war. Before it was declared by Rome, they, however, received a fatal blow from Maſiniſſa and his ſon Guluſſa. And they then thought proper to tender their ſubmiſſion to the will of the Roman ſenate.

Notwithſtanding this overture, the Conſuls Manilius Nepos, and L. Marcius Cenſorinus, landed in Africa with 74,000 men. They then ordered the citizens of Carthage to bring their arms to the camp; which being complied with, the Carthaginians were informed their city itſelf muſt be levelled to the ground.

When this was known in Carthage, the inhabitants reſolved rather to die than yield to ſuch an order. They then, without declaring their intentions, fell to work to ſupply the place of thoſe arms they had ſo late-

ly parted with. Their gold and ſilver were melted down, for the conſtruction of neceſſary engines. And the women are even ſaid to have parted with their hair to ſupply the deficiency of ropes. As for the Conſuls, they never ſuſpected a reſiſtance, after the arms were ſurrendered. They, therefore, thought it beſt to allow a little time to reconcile them to ſo harſh a command. But when, at length, they marched towards the city, they were aſtoniſhed beyond expreſſion; and, contrary to all expectation, they were forced to make a regular inveſtiture.

Aſdrubal, a Carthaginian general, who had before this been proſcribed by Rome, was at this time in the field, at the head of a conſiderable force, with which he reſolved to co-operate with his native city. He, therefore, carefully cut off all ſupplies that were going to the Roman camp. And another Aſdrubal, who commanded in Carthage, by means of fireſhips, deſtroyed a

conſiderable part of the Roman fleet. In ſhort, during this and the enſuing year, the Romans were unable to make any impreſſion. Scipio Æmilianus, a military tribune, who had greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf, was then raiſed to the Conſulate. And the war in Africa being intruſted to him, a ſpeedy change took place in their affairs.

Scipio's ſucceſs was ſo rapid, that Aſdrubal, who had been proſcribed, and who now commanded in the city, was enraged almoſt to madneſs. In revenge, this monſter cut off the hands and feet, and plucked out the eyes and tongues of all his Roman priſoners, throwing their bodies, thus mutilated, over the walls of Carthage. After various conflicts, Scipio at length took the city by ſtorm; and this mercenary and barbarous people well merited the total overthrow which was now given to their empire. Carthage itſelf was entirely demoliſhed, as ſome ſay, on the very day that Corinth was deſtroyed. But certain it is, that both theſe

great and powerful cities were annihilated in the year 141. And the Carthaginian territories were likewiſe converted into a Roman province.

Numidia and Mauritania, two other nations of Africa, were ſuppoſed to originate from the deſcendants of Mizraim and Phut, the ſons of Ham; though probably ſeveral colonies from Phœnicia afterwards ſettled amongſt them. The government of both was abſolute monarchy, and their religion groſly idolatrous. Numidia had been divided into two ſtates; the Maſſæſily, which belonged to Syphax, and the Maſſyli, over which Maſiniſſa ruled, but both at this time were under the juriſdiction of the latter. The great ſtrength of the Numidians conſiſted in their cavalry; and they trained their horſes, ſo as to have them in compleat management, without uſing either ſaddles or bridles. This is what they were chiefly remarkable for, and nothing more remains to be ſaid of the countries of Africa.

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EIGHTH LETTER.

MY preſent letter ſhall be confined to the hiſtory of Rome, from the commencement of this Æra to the deſtruction of Carthage. I ſhall, however, paſs over all that has fallen in with my accounts of other countries. Two additional tribes were formed about the year 328, which made them twenty-nine in number. And from henceforth the votes of the people were generally, if not altogether, taken by tribes, which greatly added to the power of the democracy.

A very ſingular conſpiracy, at this time, happened amongſt the women of rank at Rome. Its object was the ſecret deſtruction of their huſbands; and numbers died of poiſon before it was detected. It was at length diſcovered by means of a ſlave, and 170, or, as ſome ſay, 390 matrons, deſtroy-

ed themſelves, rather than ſtand their trial. The cauſe of ſo ſtrange a crime is not explained; but as unnatural luſts, at this time, abounded amongſt the males, I think that was the probable ſource of this conſpiracy. The Romans, however, ſuppoſed their gods to be offended. And, amongſt other expiations, a Dictator was appointed to drive a nail in the wall of the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus; a ſuperſtition which was practiſed on extraordinary occaſions.

In a few years after this, a change in their law, as to debtors, took place; the goods alone being made liable. The powers of the Cenſors were greatly encreaſed from the creation of that office to the preſent period; for, beſides the ſuperintendence of manners, they filled up the vacancies in the Prieſthood, and in the rolls from which the Senators were ſtruck. They had alſo the ſuperintendence of all public works. And Appius Claudius, who was now a Cenſor, erected a great aque-

duct to ſupply the city with water; at the ſame time making a paved road, of 140 miles, between Rome and Capua, from him called the Appian way.

Before the Cenſorſhip of Appius, Patricians alone could fill the Prieſthood, except in the temples of the ſlaves. But he introduced freedmen into that ſacred office, and alſo on the roll from whence the Senators were ſtruck. The latter was, however, ſoon altered by his ſucceſſors. A diſpute now aroſe as to the choice of military Tribunes. There were ſix to each legion, and the uſual army allotted to the Conſuls was four legions, ſo that the military Tribunes were twenty-four in number. The people had formerly nominated ſix of theſe, whereas the Conſuls now appointed them all. But this conteſt ended in the people's obtaining a right to name ſixteen of thoſe officers. Another alteration was made much about the ſame time. This was the appointment of two new officers, called Duum Viri Navales. And to them

belonged the ſuperintendence of maritime affairs, which now began to be of ſome conſequence at Rome.

A few years after this, Q. Fabius was made one of the Cenſors. He had before diſtinguiſhed himſelf as Dictator, Conſul, and Proconſul, having proved ſucceſsful in various engagements. He, however, now obtained the addition of Maximus from a civil alteration. Appius Claudius had diſperſed a number of the very loweſt citizens amongſt the country tribes, thereby ſecuring majorities in them. But as the four city tribes were too numerous and powerful to be hurt by the addition of thoſe lower citizens, Fabius, by virtue of his office, transferred them to the latter. And as the ſenſe of the people was now taken by tribes, this alteration was deemed of the utmoſt conſequence.

Though the people were a little reſtrained by this change, as to the lower order, they were ſtill extremely powerful. They there-

fore propoſed and carried, that four new Pontifices, and five Augurs, ſhould be added to the four of each claſs already eſtabliſhed; all which additional ones were to be taken from the Plebeian order. This brought a vaſt acceſſion of power to the Democratic party; becauſe no election was valid unleſs approved of by the Augurs, and in ſome inſtances by the Pontifices. So that whilſt theſe appointments were confined to the Patricians, they were ready inſtruments againſt the elective rights of the Plebeians. The law which gave an appeal from the magiſtrates to the people, in capital caſes, was alſo revived. Any magiſtrate who ſhould, from thenceforth refuſe it, was to be deemed diſhoneſt, and that ſentence for ever excluded him from all offices in the Roman Republic.

A few years ſubſequent to theſe alterations, the Sybilline Oracles were conſulted, as to a plague which ravaged the Roman territories. They adviſed an embaſſy to Greece, to fetch

over the god Eſculapius, from his temple at Epidaurus. This was a ſerpent ſuppoſed to contain the ſpirit of that celebrated phyſician; and the Roman ambaſſadors having found means to procure the animal from its prieſts, tranſmitted it to Rome. The plague ſoon after ceaſing, an iſland in the Tiber was allotted to the ſerpent; a temple being, at the ſame time, erected to their new deity.

The Samnites, for a long time, were particularly troubleſome to Rome; till at length Curius Dentatus, one of the Conſuls, proved ſo ſucceſsful, that they were forced to ſupplicate a new alliance with the Romans. Senſible of Dentatus's virtue, his countrymen left the terms ſolely to him; with which the Samnites were no ſooner acquainted, than they ſent him the moſt coſtly preſents, in order to ſecure his favour. This virtuous Roman, who had contented himſelf with a very humble houſe, and a few wooden diſhes, was preparing a dinner of turnips, when the ambaſſadors from the Samnites tendered the

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rich gifts which accompanied them. But he rejected them with diſdain, at the ſame time pointing to the mode of life with which he was contented. And having concluded a peace highly beneficial to his country, he was honoured with a triumph.

Notwithſtanding the late change in favour of debtors, the rich had again confined their perſons; and ſome very groſs abuſes of thoſe unfortunate men now cauſed a ſeceſſion of the people. Q. Hortenſius was made Dictator on this emergency, but dying before order was reſtored, Fabius Maximus was appointed to that exalted office. Beſides the demand as to debtors perſons being free, the people inſiſted, that all things which paſſed the ſenate, ſhould be laid before them before it became a law. And likewiſe, that all reſolutions of the people taken by tribes ſhould be binding on every citizen. Fabius knew, that every thing now aſked had been formerly granted them. He therefore reſtored the tranquillity of the ſtate, by an immediate

compliance. And dying ſoon after, he was honoured by a moſt magnificent funeral.

The Tarentines were, at this time, involved in a war with Rome; but being totally unequal to ſuch a conteſt, they ſent to implore the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. This was granted by that ambitious monarch, who longed for a good opportunity to try his fortune in Italy. And he landed there with an army of 22,000 foot—3000 horſe—500 ſlingers—and a number of elephants.

Before his arrival, the Romans had gained conſiderable advantages over the Tarentines and their confederates, but Pyrrhus's appearance gave a check to their arms. That king aſſumed the moſt abſolute authority in Tarentum. He forced its voluptuous and effeminate inhabitants to relinquiſh thoſe amuſements to which they had entirely devoted themſelves. Obliging them, much againſt their inclinations, to apply themſelves to the ſtudy of arms.

The firſt meeting between Pyrrhus and

the Romans happened on the banks of the river Siris; for the Conſul Lævinus croſſing that river, a deſperate engagement took place. At length the Romans were put in confuſion, by the horſe falling back on their infantry. This was occaſioned by the terror which aroſe from the appearance of the elephants, carrying towers filled with armed men; and after a very bloody conflict, Pyrrhus remained maſter of the field. But when he was informed of his own loſs, he could not help exclaiming, that ſuch another victory would ſend him back to Epirus.

Pyrrhus was too good a general not to follow his ſucceſs. He therefore ravaged ſeveral of the countries ſubject to the Romans, and took poſſeſſion of Campania, where he was joined by the Samnites, Lucanians, and Meſſalians. At length he ventured to inveſt Præneſte, a city in the neighbourhood of Rome. On more mature deliberation, he, however, abandoned that enterpriſe, and re-

turning to Tarentum, he there took up his quarters for the enſuing winter.

The Romans ſent three ambaſſadors to negotiate the ranſom of their priſoners; on which Pyrrhus, who now ſought for an honourable peace with that people, freely diſmiſſed the Romans he had captured. Fabricius, who was one of the ambaſſadors, was of great conſequence at Rome, having proved victorious on many occaſions. The Epyrean king, therefore, endeavoured, though in vain, to bribe him to his intereſt. And when that monarch afterwards ſent Cineas, his prime miniſter, to negotiate at Rome, he received for anſwer, that the Romans would never treat with his maſter whilſt he continued in Italy.

Though rather inclined to peace, Pyrrhus preferred the chance of war to ſo humiliating terms. He was now oppoſed in the field by the Conſuls P. Sulpitius Tavernio and P. Decius Mus. Mus was the grandſon to that Mus whom you have heard devoted himſelf.

His father had likewiſe done the ſame thing, with ſimilar ſucceſs. And Pyrrhus, from ſuperſtition, ſent the preſent Conſul word, that if he attempted to do ſo, he ſhould not be killed, but kept for the ſevereſt tortures. This was anſwered by a taunting reply, that the Romans never devoted themſelves againſt enemies that were not formidable. The battle was however a drawn one, and Mus loſt his life in the engagement; whilſt Pyrrhus, who was himſelf wounded, thought proper to retire to Tarentum.

C. Fabricius and Q. Æmilius, the following Conſuls, began the campaign by entering the territories of the Tarentines. This called Pyrrhus into the field, and the two armies encamped at no great diſtance from each other. Whilſt ſituated thus, Nicias, the phyſician of Pyrrhus, propoſed to Fabricius, that he would poiſon his maſter for a ſpecified reward. But inſtead of liſtening to ſuch an overture, Fabricius gave information of it to Pyrrhus, and Nicias ſuffered a well-

merited death. The king, to teſtify his gratitude, immediately ſent all the priſoners in his poſſeſſion to the Roman camp. Fabricius would not, however, accept of them till he returned an equal number; both Conſuls at the ſame time obſerving, that they could not take a reward for not being villains. Sick of a war with ſo brave and generous a people, Pyrrhus made freſh overtures of peace. And at the end of this year, which produced nothing memorable, he went into Sicily, the event of which you are already acquainted with.

During the two ſucceeding years, the Romans were chiefly employed in chaſtiſing thoſe ſtates that had declared for Pyrrhus, and the Tarentines. The Tarentines themſelves likewiſe ſuffered ſeverely. A little change, however, took place in their favour on the return of Pyrrhus from Sicily. Not being able to obtain peace from Rome, he again took the field, and the celebrated Curius Dentatus was oppoſed to him. Denta-

tus at firſt came only to a partial action; but in it he took a few elephants, of which the Romans had been particularly fearful; and thus encouraged, he reſolved on a deciſive engagement.

In order to conquer the elephants, Dentatus appointed a choſen band, who were to attack them with lighted torches in one hand, and ſwords in the other. This had the deſired effect, for the terrified animals turned back on their own people, treading multitudes to death. At length the Romans were compleatly victorious. Upwards of 20,000 fell on the part of Pyrrhus; and eight elephants together with 1200 men were made priſoners. The Epyrean monarch, with the remnant of his forces, then made good their retreat to Tarentum; but the camp, with all its riches, fell into the hands of the Romans. Its fortifications appeared ſo admirable, that Dentatus introduced the ſame mode of encamping into the military practice of Rome. Pyrrhus was certainly one of the greateſt ge-

nius's for war then in the world. He, however, reſolved to abandon Italy; and though he promiſed a ſpeedy return, with a more powerful army, it never took place.

Dentatus triumphed for this important victory. And in his proceſſion, Rome for the firſt time beheld the rich ornaments and elegant furniture for which Greece was in thoſe days remarkable. But what aſtoniſhed the citizens moſt, was the elephants with towers on their backs, as thoſe animals were firſt introduced by Pyrrhus into Italy. Of all theſe things the poor, but contented Dentatus, would accept of nothing, except a little veſſel of beech for his domeſtic ſacrifices; poverty, as yet, being honourable at Rome. And this very year a number of Senators were ſtruck off the roll by the Cenſors for luxury and diſſolute manners.

It was ſoon after this that Ptolemy Philadelphus firſt opened an intercourſe between Egypt and Rome. An alliance being offered by his ambaſſadors, the Romans cloſed with

it, and ſent four of their chief citizens to confirm it at the Egyptian court. Ptolemy ſent back a rich preſent to the ſtate, and forced the ambaſſadors to accept conſiderable gifts for themſelves. They however delivered what they had received for their private uſe to the ſtate. It was indeed returned to them by the Senate; but it proves that public virtue which, at this time, exiſted amongſt the Romans.

The news of Pyrrhus's death, which now arrived at Tarentum, put an end to all their hopes. And though the Carthaginians made a faint effort to aid them, they fell to the Romans. All the other ſtates of Italy ſoon after ſubmitted; different terms being given, according to the particular circumſtances which attended them. The whole country of Italy was then divided into four provinces; as many new Quæſtors being at the ſame time appointed, to collect their revenues. The firſt ſum to be paid was the tribute fixed on each ſtate. The next was the tenth

part of the produce of the lands, immediately ſubject to Rome. And the impoſts on different articles, made up the reſt of the taxes which went into the Roman treaſury. Hitherto braſs coin had been alone in uſe, but now, or a very little before it, ſilver money was introduced; the increaſe of riches very naturally keeping pace with the conqueſts of Rome. New faults, however, accompanied their wealth, till at length the duty of the Cenſors became ſo important, that no man could fill that office more than once in his life.

By the interference of the Carthaginians at Tarentum, and the ſubſequent aid from Rome to Meſſana, in Sicily, the firſt Punic war commenced. It laſted from the year 259 to the year 235; and all that was material, as to it, is already related. A Prætor was then ſent to Sicily, to govern and judge what belonged to Rome in that iſland, according to the laws of the republic. A Quæſtor was likewiſe appointed to receive

the revenues of this new province; and both theſe officers were annually elected by the Roman people.

The great extenſion of the Roman territories had likewiſe occaſioned a new officer at Rome. This was a Prætor Peregrinus, who heard all cauſes in which foreigners were concerned. And the firſt Prætor was from thenceforth ſtiled the Prætor Urbanus; his duty being now confined to thoſe complaints which aroſe between citizen and citizen.

Some diſturbances broke out in Ciſalpine Gaul, as likewiſe in Sardinia and Corſica, between the end of the firſt and the commencement of the ſecond Punic war. About the year 229, Rome was at univerſal peace, for the firſt time ſince the days of Numa. The doors of its temple to Janus were therefore ſhut. And perhaps the reſtleſs ambition of the Romans cannot be more pointedly deſcribed, than by contemplating this fact: That they had not been at peace for upwards of three centuries.

But even this calm did not exceed two months, and the temple was again opened. Then followed wars in Sardinia, Corſica, Illyria, Iſtria, and Ciſalpine Gaul. The conſequence of theſe was the reduction of Sardinia and Corſica into a Roman province. The ſame thing happened as to Ciſalpine Gaul. Iſtria was ſubdued. And by a peace with Illyria, the iſlands of Corcyra, Iſſu, and Pharos, together with the country of Atintares, and the city of Dyrrachium, was ceded to the Romans. And no Illyrian ſhip of war was, at any time, to ſail beyond Lyſſus, a town on the confines of Illyria. The Illyrians had been great pirates, and this reſtriction was moſt highly pleaſing to the cities of Greece. The Athenians, therefore complimented the Romans, by giving them a right to be introduced to the myſteries of Ceres. Corinth likewiſe declared, that all of that nation ſhould be allowed to be preſent at her Iſthmian games. But theſe great cities little foreſaw, that this ambitious re-

public, by its ſucceſs againſt the Illyrians, had gained an eaſy entrance into Greece and Macedon.

From the year 229, to the commencement of the ſecond Punic war, there are ſome domeſtic tranſactions that deſerve to be noticed. The Cenſors obliged all men, when they married, to ſwear, that they did ſo with a view to encreaſe the Roman citizens; which extraordinary oath, I think, muſt have had its origin from the hideous luſts that then prevailed at Rome. This was in the year 228, and it is ſaid, the firſt divorce that ever took place amongſt the Romans, happened that year. And at this time, the firſt regular comedy, on the Greek plan, was brought on the Roman ſtage, by the Poet Mævius.

A little after this, a new body of Judges were elected to aſſiſt the Prætor. The tribes were now thirty-five in number, which they never exceeded. Each tribe choſe three of their own members, and the 105, which they nominated, were called Centum Viri. To

them were committed the trials of wills—proſcriptions—guardianſhips—and inheritances. And they were divided into four courts, each of which had its own peculiar cauſes.

An inſtance of the looſe government of Rome happened in the caſe of the Conſul C. Papirius Maſo. Having compleated the reduction of Corſica, he put in his claim for a triumph. It was refuſed him, but he entered Rome at the head of his victorious army, going through the forms of that honour. And this breach of the law paſſing with impunity, his example was afterwards frequently imitated.

The barbarous ſuperſtition of Rome was ſtrongly inſtanced in their wars with the Gauls. They had a prediction, that that people and the Greeks would one day poſſeſs Rome. And the Gauls being at firſt very ſucceſsful, the people were thrown into a ſtate of deſpondency. As uſual in caſes of danger, the Sybilline Oracles were conſulted;

on which the keepers of them declared, that the prediction would be averted, by burying alive a man and woman of each of the nations they feared. And this inhuman expedient was accordingly performed.

The events of the ſecond Punic war, which began in the year 214, and ended in the year 196, are already related. During it, it was enacted, that no Patrician could carry on commerce. And it is neceſſary juſt to obſerve, that the Macedonians were effectually prevented by the Romans, from giving any material aid to Carthage. When Scipio returned from his conqueſts, he received the moſt magnificent triumph that had ever been ſeen in Rome. Beſides which, he was honoured with the additional name of Africanus.

Peace had been concluded with Philip of Macedon, before the end of the ſecond Punic war. But it was not long till new diſſentions aroſe, which Philip with difficulty was able to get over. The Ciſalpine Gauls, much

about the ſame time revolted from Rome; and the Conſuls being otherwiſe engaged, the Prætor Furius Purpureo commanded the troops that were to reduce them. Having ſucceeded, he was honoured with a triumph, being the firſt Prætor that received one; after which, when occaſion required it, the Prætors were often employed in military affairs. Some alterations now took place in conſtitutional matters. No magiſtrate was to cauſe a Roman citizen to be whipped without a trial. This, however, did not extend to the Conſuls, nor to the commanders of forces that were actually in the field. The Pontifices and Augurs had hitherto been exempted from taxation, but were now made liable. Three new religious officers, called Epulones, were alſo at this time created. They were to be always Plebeians, and their duty was to preſide at religious feaſts. Whilſt Hannibal threatened Rome with deſtruction, a law had paſſed preventing the women from

the uſe of certain ornaments, and it was now repealed.

In Spain, the revolts of the Spaniſh princes were very frequent, though ineffectual. And the Ciſalpine Gauls as ſtrenuouſly ſought to throw off the yoke, though with as little ſucceſs. The war with Antiochus the Great, at this time commenced, and the Conſul L. Cornelius Scipio was diſpatched on that ſervice; his brother Scipio Africanus acting as his Lieutenant. You are acquainted with the ſucceſs of that expedition. But inſtead of the approbation and triumph which their ſervices deſerved, they were expoſed both to inſult and danger on their return to Rome. Cato was, at this time, one of the moſt popular men in that city. This aroſe from his conduct in Spain, where he had commanded an army; for in dividing the ſpoil which he had taken, he gave every private ſoldier nearly as much as he reſerved to himſelf and the principal officers. And the influence which this had given him with the multitude, was

ſtill farther increaſed by the auſterity of his manners. This man, who was the implacable enemy of the Scipios, therefore occaſioned falſe accuſations to be made againſt Africanus. It was alledged, that he had been bribed by Antiochus the Great, to aſſiſt in a peace diſadvantageous to Rome. And ſuch was the popular cry againſt this diſtinguiſhed Roman, that he thought it moſt expedient to retire to his country ſeat near Naples. There he ſoon after ended his days, in the 48th year of his age, as is ſuppoſed of a broken heart; exclaiming, with his laſt words, againſt the ingratitude of his country.

The death of Africanus, by no means ſatisfied the reſentment of Cato. At his inſtigation, Cornelius Scipio, who had taken the addition of Aſiaticus, was likewiſe accuſed. His trial came on before the Prætor Terentius Caleo, his avowed enemy. The conſequence of which was, the confiſcation of

all his property. This, however, cleared up his innocence, for his effects were ſo inconſiderable, as to give the lie to all charges of his being bribed by Antiochus. And the people were no ſooner convinced of his unjuſt condemnation, than he regained their good opinion; Caleo, in his turn, becoming the object of their reſentment.

But the implacable diſpoſition of Cato ſtill purſued Scipio Aſiaticus. Being made Cenſor, he, in that capacity, took away the horſe of Scipio, thereby degrading him from the rank of a Roman Knight. Envy is ſuppoſed to have been the great ſource of this perſevering enmity. But Cato had the art of making the multitude believe, all his actions aroſe from virtue, though it is ſaid he was of a moſt vicious diſpoſition, ſecretly indulging himſelf in the vileſt gratifications. The people, however, had not ſufficient judgment to ſee through his hypocriſy; and when he now taxed all kinds of luxury, in his ca-

pacity of Cenſor, they erected a ſtatue to his honour.

M. Fulvius Mobilior, who had ſucceeded Scipio in the Aſiatic command, put the final concluſion to the treaty entered into with Antiochus the Great, and had conſiderable ſucceſs againſt the Galatians of Aſia-Minor. For theſe trivial ſervices he was honoured with a triumph, though the more important ones of Scipio Aſiaticus had met with ſuch injuſtice. With the entry of Mobilior ſome of the Aſiatic and Greek ſports were introduced; particularly the Athletæ, or wreſtling, and men engaging with wild beaſts. It was about this time that the celebrated Hannibal ended his days. You have ſeen the Romans making it one of the articles with Antiochus, that he ſhould be delivered up to that republic. But the Carthaginian averted it, by flying to the court of Pruſias, king of Bithynia. Thither alſo the implacable hatred of Rome purſued him. And finding he

was about to be ſurrendered, he took a poiſon, which he had concealed in his ring; preferring that mode of death to what he might expect from the hands of his enemies. Hannibal was certainly a great, though he cannot be called a good man. And Carthage was, if poſſible, more ungrateful to him than Rome had been to his illuſtrious conqueror.

A ſumptuary law was at this time enacted, forbidding the expenditure of more than one hundred aſſes of braſs on any one entertainment. This was about ſix ſhillings and fivepence Britiſh money; ſo that wealth did not yet abound at Rome. The ages, when men might fill the principal offices of ſtate, were alſo fixed about this period. Thirty-one was the age that qualified to be a Quæſtor; thirty-ſeven a Curule Ædile; forty a Prætor; and forty-three for the Conſulate.

Various revolts in Spain and Ciſalpine Gaul gave occaſion for many battles. In them the Romans were generally ſucceſsful

and the commanders were recompenſed by triumphs and ovations, according to the importance of their ſervices; an ovation being only an humble kind of triumph. Beſides theſe tranſactions in the provinces, the Roman arms were employed againſt Gentius, king of Illyricum, and Perſes, king of Macedon. And the year in which the latter war was declared, is remarkable for having two Plebeians raiſed to the Conſulate, which never before took place. Both Macedon and Illyricum were conquered; the Conſul Æmilius—the Prætor Amicius—and Octavius, who commanded the fleet, being chiefly concerned in their reduction. They were, therefore, honoured with a triumph, in which Gentius, with his family, and Perſes and his two ſons, together with the principal nobles of Macedon, were led in proceſſion. The immenſe ſpoil brought to Rome, on this occaſion, rendered all taxes unneceſſary; and the conſtant increaſe of wealth to the public

treaſury, from this time forward, prevented a renewal of them till the times of Auguſtus. Gentius and his family got a ſettlement in Umbria. But Perſes and one of his ſons died in priſon, whilſt the other, named Alexander, was permitted to ſupport himſelf by following ſome mean occupation. Much about this time, Terence, a ſlave, whom Scipio Africanus had carried to Rome, brought out ſome of his plays; thereby greatly adding to the entertainment of the Roman theatre.

In the year 162, the Romans entered into an alliance with the Jewiſh nation. They alſo became mediators between the kings of Syria and Cappadocia, who were at war with each other; bringing about a peace with the contending parties. And by theſe interferences in Aſiatic affairs, they were paving a way for extending their conqueſts to this quarter of the world.

On the differences which aroſe between Carthage and Maſiniſſa, Cato, with nine

others, were ſent to inveſtigate them. When Cato returned, he adviſed an inſtant war with the Carthaginians, as their city was again riſing to power; but, for the preſent, his opinion was not purſued. The Dalmatians, who had for ſome time been engaged in a war with Rome, were ſoon after this ſubdued by the Conſul Scipio Naſica. To this ſucceſs was oppoſed very unpleaſing intelligence from Spain. The Prætors and Quæſtors over its two provinces had been guilty of great extortions. This created a very general revolt, and for a year or two the Romans were extremely unſucceſsful. Claudius Marcellus, one of the Conſuls, was therefore ſent into that country. But though he gave a favourable turn to their affairs, it was deemed neceſſary to ſend over L. Licinius Lucullus, one of the enſuing Conſuls, with freſh levies. Spain had, however, already proved fatal to ſuch multitudes, that the Conſul could not get any to enrol themſelves; till, at length, Scipio Æmilianus, a gallant youth,

ſtept forth and engaged in this duty. He then addreſſed himſelf to the aſſembled people, in ſo animated a harangue, that a ſufficient number was immediately obtained. And in the campaigns which followed in Spain, Æmilianus diſtinguiſhed himſelf both by his courage and humanity.

On the third Punic war breaking out, Scipio Æmilianus ſerved firſt againſt Carthage, as a military Tribune. He, however, ſoon rendered himſelf ſo conſpicuous, that he was raiſed to the Conſulate, though under the allotted age, and the management of the war was entirely committed to him. After his ſucceſs, he entered Rome with a moſt magnificent triumph, and was called the ſecond Scipio Africanus. By adoption, a practice common among the Romans, he was grandſon to the firſt Africanus; and beſides his courage and military ſkill, he was extremely attached to literature.

Luſitania, the ſame with what is now Portugal, was the moſt warlike part of Spain.

Viriathes, at this period its King, had given the Romans many overthrows; nor were their affairs at all ſettled in that quarter. Every where elſe they were compleatly victorious. The Prætor Q. Cæcilius Metellus, had finally compleated the ſubjection of Macedon, for which he was honoured with the addition of Macedonicus. The Conſul Mummius was likewiſe ſirnamed Achaiacus, for putting the laſt hand to the conqueſt of Greece. And in the year 141, by the deſtruction of Carthage and Corinth, we may fairly date the eſtabliſhed and uncontroulable power of the Roman arms.

NINTH LETTER.

IN obſerving upon this Æra, you as uſual perceive the uniform increaſe of nations, and of population. The Gauls and Spaniards muſt now have been extremely numerous, from the immenſe armies they raiſed, and the conſtant revolts in which they were engaged. In Africa, we find new ſtates juſt introduced upon the theatre of the world. And many of the Mediterranean iſlands, which were formerly inſignificant, had now ariſen to conſequence.

The arts and elegancies of life, which had been brought to great perfection among the Greeks, were at this period introduced in Rome, and many of its provinces. In military affairs, regular ſieges, and almoſt incredible engines, make their appearance. The exertions on the ſea, between the Romans

and Carthaginians, were alſo very great. But the perfection of the mechanic powers, is the moſt aſtoniſhing of all. The inventions of Archimedes, have, perhaps, never been excelled; and the raiſing ſuch a body, as the Coloſſus of Rhodes, were it not well authenticated, would be deemed incredible. In literature, the library founded at Alexandria was of great importance. The various authors, then extant, were collected there. And men who ſought for knowledge, might find in the capital of Egypt all that was then to be acquired.

The Roman empire differed from all which preceded it. The Jews, Egyptians, Babylonians, Aſſyrians, Medes, Perſians, with the Greeks and Macedonians roſe to power, under abſolute monarchs. In weak ſucceſſions, the ſubject nations either threw off the yoke altogether, or gave a very ſlight acknowledgment of their ſubjection. And in the courſe of a few centuries, even the greateſt of theſe empires ſunk into delay. But

Rome preſents a new ſcene to our view. Its free conſtitution gave every citizen an opportunity of diſplaying his genius, and peculiar powers. The higheſt offices were generally beſtowed on ſuch as were fitteſt to diſcharge their duties. No weak king loſt what his predeceſſor had gained; for their men of capacity were conſtantly preferred. And it is to this peculiarity we muſt attribute the ſuperior power and extenſion of the Roman arms.

Another thing muſt be obſerved as to this ſingular people. A ſettled ſyſtem of conqueſt pervaded their public aſſemblies, from the abolition of the regal dignity till the times of Auguſtus Cæſar. But this was managed with the utmoſt judgment, and they never almoſt ventured into unwiſe exertions. They were not embarked in any foreign war, till Italy was entirely reduced, and formed into Roman provinces. Then Sicily was attacked, and ſubjected, together with Corſica and Sardinia. The hither and further Spain

were the next in order. After ſome other countries of Europe ſubmitted to them, Macedon, the ſeat of the Greek empire, yielded to their arms. And at length, in the year 141, not only Greece, but Carthage were added to the provinces of Rome. By theſe laſt conqueſts, they became the greateſt nation then on earth; from whence they aroſe to the ſummit of the Heathen World, as will appear in the enſuing Æra. And I ſhall then point out to you, the inſtability and inadequateneſs of the utmoſt extent of human policy.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.

MVSEVM
BRITAN
NICVM